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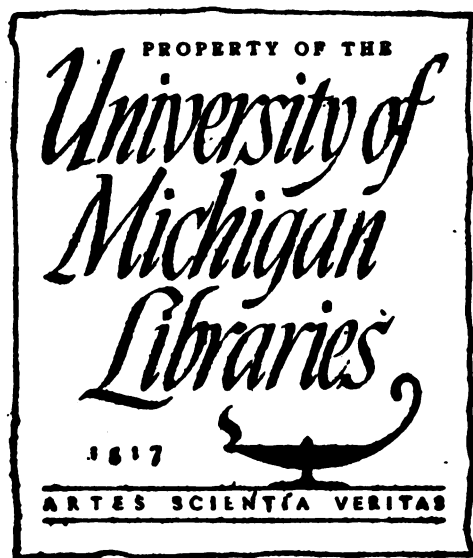
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N. H. R. DAWSON, *Commissioner*

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CONTRIBUTIONS TO AMERICAN EDUCATIONAL HISTORY

EDITED BY HERBERT B. ADAMS

No. 5

EDUCATION IN GEORGIA

BY

CHARLES EDGEWORTH JONES

OF AUGUSTA, GA.

LATE GRADUATE STUDENT AT THE JOHNS HOPKINS UNIVERSITY



WASHINGTON

GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE

1889

1409—No. 4—1

"Your institution has taken a strong root, and will flourish; and I feel some degree of pride in reflecting that a century hence, when this nascent village [Athens] shall embosom a thousand of the Georgian youths, pursuing the paths of science, it will now and then be said that you gave this land, and I was on the forlorn hope."—PRESIDENT MEIGS: Letter to Governor Milledge, May 11, 1808.

"It [the University of Georgia] was the creation of no one man or set of men; it was the gift of no political party; it was the offspring of no religious or denominational sect; it drew its life and being from the State by whom it was created. It was of the people, by the people, and for the people."—CHARLES Z. McCORD: Address to Alumni, 1885.

"Had we carried out the views of her early patriots, and the framers of our first Constitution, Georgia would now have a system of education equal, if not superior, to that of any State in the Union."—PRESIDENT CHURCH, in 1845.

"I regard the education of the children of the State as the grand object of primary importance, which should, if necessary, take precedence of all other questions of State policy.
* * * *Educate the masses and inculcate virtue and morality, and you lay broad and deep, in the hearts of our people, the only sure foundations of republican liberty and religious toleration; the latter of which is the brightest gem in the Constitution of our country."*—GOVERNOR BROWN: Message of 1858.

"It is not population we want. But we do want a population educated to know how to use their mind and muscle. It is not capital we want. But we do want the wisdom of science and art to know how to use the capital we have. It is not resources we want. Providence has given us more than we know what to do with. Nor, indeed, are we wanting in those higher qualities which ennoble the private and the organic life of a people. What we most need in this critical period is that educated intellect which can direct our energies and discipline our immense power so as to lift up the Commonwealth, and fortify it, at all points, against the inroads of threatening evils."—CHANCELLOR LIPSCOMB, in 1873.

LETTER.

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR,
BUREAU OF EDUCATION,
Washington, D. C., October 10, 1888.

The Honorable the SECRETARY OF THE INTERIOR,
Washington, D. C.

SIR: The present monograph was prepared by Mr. Charles Edgeworth Jones, of Augusta, Ga., a son of the historian of that State, and late graduate student of Johns Hopkins University. The work was undertaken by my direction under the supervision of Dr. Herbert B. Adams, editor of the present series of Contributions to American Educational History, and authorized by your predecessor.

Mr. Jones discusses the history of education in the State of Georgia. The inquiry has been carefully prosecuted, and all available sources of information appear to have been intelligently utilized.

The paper opens with a sketch of the educational advantages afforded by the few schools which existed during the colonial epoch.

The formation and conduct of academies after the Revolutionary War are next considered. Among the more prominent were the academies of Sunbury and of Richmond County, which exerted a marked influence at that early period, and constituted the most important factors in the education of the sons of the infant Commonwealth.

The author then addresses himself to a review of the elementary education afforded in the rural schools, the teachers of which were supported by the tuition derived from the attending scholars. Carefully, and with an exhaustive analysis of the laws and constitutional provisions bearing upon the subject, are the rise, development, and decadence of the "poor school system" noted.

Prior to the late Civil War steps had been taken to establish a system of common schools accessible to all white children between the ages of six and eighteen. They were, however, interrupted by the War, and it was not until some five or six years after the cessation of hostilities that the present system of public schools was inaugurated. With the opportunities presented by this system for the instruction of the youths of the State this paper deals fully.

Having discussed these preliminary topics, Mr. Jones turns his attention to the history and present status of higher education in Georgia,

LETTER OF TRANSMITTAL.

as represented in the University of the State and its branches, in various denominational colleges, and in special institutions designed to facilitate studies in law, medicine, theology, science, and art. All charitable and literary institutions ministering to intellectual, social, and moral improvement receive due consideration.

Upon a review of the whole subject, it will be seen that education in Georgia, both elementary and superior, is practically free, and that within the borders of that State there is no present excuse for illiteracy.

The publication of this contribution to American educational history is respectfully recommended.

Very respectfully, your obedient servant,

N. H. R. DAWSON,
Commissioner.

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EDUCATION IN GEORGIA.

CHAPTER I.

EARLY SCHOOLS IN GEORGIA.

THE ORPHAN HOUSE AT BETHESDA.¹

The earliest efforts toward education in Georgia found expression in the school for the religious instruction of the Indians, located at Irene, under the conduct of the Moravians,² and in the Orphan House established at Bethesda, near Savannah, by the Rev. George Whitefield, in association with his friend the Hon. James Habersham. The former of these continued for only a few years, its existence terminating with the departure of the Moravian settlers for Pennsylvania, in 1738. The other claims a more extended notice, since it constituted the most prominent institution of learning in the colony prior to the Revolution.³

ORGANIZATION BY CHARLES WESLEY AND GEORGE WHITEFIELD.

The idea of founding an orphan house in Georgia was suggested by the Rev. Charles Wesley, who, at his meeting with Mr. Whitefield in 1737, convinced him of the educational wants of the plantation and the

¹ Bethesda, Its Founders, etc.; A Historical Sketch, by J. F. Caun.

Sketch of Hon. James Habersham, and Robert H. Griffin's Address. Union Society Records, 1750-1858. Savannah, 1860.

White's Historical Collections of Georgia (New York, 1854, pp. 329-33), containing an account of the institution taken from a pamphlet printed in the year 1746, entitled, "A Brief Account of the Rise, Progress, and Present Situation of the Orphan House in Georgia." Also *Ibid.*, p. 681.

Historical Record of the City of Savannah. Savannah, 1869. Pp. 197-9.

History of Georgia, by Charles C. Jones, Jr., LL. D. Boston, 1883. Vol. I, Chap. XXV.

² Jones's History of Georgia, Vol. I, p. 199.

³ One of the earliest school-masters in the colony was Charles Delamotte, the son of a London merchant and a friend of the Wesleys, who arrived in Savannah early in 1736. (Jones's History of Georgia, Vol. I, p. 204.)

immediate necessity for supplying them. Accordingly, the latter having previously by a personal visit to the colony satisfied his mind of the justness and expediency of the project, petitioned the Georgia trustees, from whom he received a grant of five hundred acres of land as a home for his proposed institution. His next business was to procure the funds requisite for the erection of buildings. With this object in view, Whitefield commenced preaching in the fields. His efforts were eminently successful. "So wonderful," we are told, "were these open-air ministrations, so eloquent was he in utterance, and so powerful in thought and argument, that multitudes flocked to hear him." English liberality was not tardy in responding to his summons, and the contributions to his orphan house multiplied so rapidly that, when he returned to Georgia early in 1740, his receipts amounted to more than one thousand pounds sterling.

Before his arrival his friend, Mr. Habersham, had located the five-hundred-acre grant about ten miles from Savannah, and had begun to clear and stock the land. Meanwhile such orphans as he had collected were entertained and instructed in a house hired for that purpose. Years afterward, in reviewing his conduct in connection with the inception of the institution, Mr. Whitefield remarked:

"Had I proceeded according to the rules of prudence I should have first cleared the land, built the house, and then taken in the orphans; but I found their condition so pitiable and the inhabitants so poor, that I immediately opened an infirmary, hired a large house at a great rent, and took in, at different times, twenty-four orphans."

The first collection made in America in aid of the Orphan House was at the church of the Rev. Mr. Smith, in Charleston, S. C., early in March, 1740. Mr. Whitefield was on a visit to that place, having gone there to meet his brother, who was a ship captain. He was invited to deliver a public address in behalf of his Georgia orphans, and the contribution amounted to seventy pounds. On the 25th of that month, with his own hand, he "laid the first brick of the great house which he called Bethesda, i. e., house of mercy."¹ At this time the orphans under his charge numbered forty. Besides them, there were about sixty servants and workmen to be paid and fed. Having but little to his credit in bank, he again departed to influence subscriptions of money and provisions. By the 5th of June he was welcomed in Savannah, bringing for Bethesda money and supplies valued at more than five hundred pounds. His family, as he termed them, now numbered one hundred and fifty, and their subsistence and compensation depended entirely upon his exertions. He could take no rest, and in a little while was off for Charleston on his way to the populous northern provinces, where the balance of the year was consumed in preaching, and whence he returned to the Or-

¹ This structure, which was finished the same year, was of wood, and measured seventy by forty feet. (Union Society Records, 1750-1852.)

phan House on the 14th of December, having, during his absence, delivered one hundred and seventy-five discourses in public, and secured "upward of seven hundred pounds sterling in goods, provisions, and money for the Georgia orphans." Having spent a happy Christmas with his charge, committing the management of the temporal affairs to Mr. Habersham, and leaving Mr. Jonathan Barber as superintendent of spiritual concerns at Bethesda, he departed early in January, 1741, for England.

DESCRIPTION OF THE ORPHAN HOUSE.

The general arrangements of the institution at this time, and the routine of duties observed by the orphans, are minutely described by an eye-witness, who, after mentioning that the House contained sixty-eight children, the whole family numbering eighty-four persons, besides nineteen laborers about the premises, says: "The bell rings in the morning at sunrise to wake the family. When the children arise, they sing a short hymn, pray by themselves, go down to wash, and by the time they have done that, the bell calls to public worship, when a portion of Scripture is read and expounded, a psalm sung, and the exercises begin and end with prayer. They then breakfast, and afterward some go to their trades, and the rest to school. At noon, they all dine in the same room, and have comfortable and wholesome diet provided. A hymn is sung before and after dinner. Then, in about a half an hour, to school again; and between whiles they find time enough for recreation. A little after sunset, the bell calls to public duty again, which is performed in the same manner as in the morning. After that, they sup and are attended to bed by one of their masters, who then prays with them, as they often do privately."

Upon his return from Europe, Mr. Whitefield ascertained that the number of children had so greatly increased, that, in a short time, he made another voyage to renew his exertions in their behalf. Of the prosperous condition in which he found Bethesda on the occasion of his next visit, we are apprised by one of his letters, written in 1746: "Many of the boys," he writes, "have been put out to trades, and many girls put out to service. I had the pleasure the other day to see three boys at the house in which they were bred—one of them out of his time, a journeyman, and the others serving under their masters. One that I brought from New England is handsomely settled in Carolina; and another from Philadelphia is married, and lives very comfortably in Savannah." In the following year Mr. Whitefield purchased a plantation of six hundred and forty acres of excellent land in South Carolina, and placed several negro slaves upon it; the profits and products of this investment were applied to the support of the orphan asylum at Bethesda.

PETITION FOR A COLLEGE CHARTER.

Conceiving the design of converting the Bethesda Orphan House into "a seminary of literature and academical learning," Mr. Whitefield on the 18th of December, 1764, submitted to His Excellency James Wright, Esq., "Captain-General and Governor-in-Chief of His Majesty's Province in Georgia," and to "the members of His Majesty's Council in the said Province," a memorial, in which he called their attention to the fact that no institution of that character had as yet been founded south of Virginia; "and consequently [he continues] if a college could be established here (especially as the last addition of the two Floridas renders Georgia more central for the southern district) it would not only be highly serviceable to the rising generation of this colony, but would probably occasion many youths to be sent from the British West India Islands and other parts. The many advantages accruing thereby to this province must be very considerable."¹

The Georgia authorities heartily applauded and indorsed this design of Mr. Whitefield, whose next step was to proceed to England, that he might, by personal influence, obtain from the Crown the necessary sanction and assistance. That the matter might be brought directly to the notice of His Majesty, Mr. Whitefield prepared and delivered into the hands of the clerk of the Privy Council another memorial, in which he prayed for a charter upon the plan of the College of New Jersey, and expressed his readiness "to give up his present trust and make a free gift of all lands, negroes, goods, and chattels which he now stands possessed of in the Province of Georgia, for the present founding and toward the future support of a College to be called by the name of Bethesda College in the Province of Georgia." His earnest wish was to obtain a college charter "upon a broad bottom," to provide proper masters to instruct and prepare for literary honors many youths who, in Georgia and the adjacent provinces, were desirous of superior educational advantages, to inaugurate a liberal trust which would endure long after he was gathered to his fathers, and to know that his beloved Bethesda would not only be continued as a house of mercy for poor orphans, but would also be confirmed to the latest posterity "as a seat and nursery of sound learning and religious education."²

This favorite and crowning scheme of Whitefield's life was never consummated. His petition for a college charter was refused. Heavy as was his disappointment on account of this failure, he did not allow himself to be daunted. Abandoning the idea of a college, he determined, if possible, to make Bethesda an academy similar in its plan to one then established in Philadelphia, which sustained a high reputation.

Revisiting Bethesda in 1769, he reports that everything there exceeded

¹ Jones's History of Georgia, Vol. I, pp. 408, 409.

² A letter to His Excellency, Governor Wright, etc., etc. London, MDCCLXVIII. Pp. 1-30.

his most sanguine expectations. During this year two wings had been added to the main building for the accommodation of students, Governor Wright himself laying the corner-stone in March.

Mr. Whitefield remained at Bethesda some five months or more, giving personal and continual attention to the affairs of the institution.

DEATH OF WHITEFIELD AND FAILURE OF THE ORPHAN HOUSE.

But the care proved too arduous for him, and, with impaired health and a fast declining constitution, he made a trip to the North, only to be arrested by illness at Newburyport, Mass., where he died early on the morning of the 30th of September, 1770. By his will the Orphan House estate was vested in Lady Selina, Countess Dowager of Huntingdon;¹ and upon her demise, which occurred in June, 1791, it passed into the hands of thirteen persons, who were specially appointed trustees of Bethesda College,² then duly named and incorporated.³

Shortly after Whitefield's death, the Orphan House was consumed by fire. It was afterward partially rebuilt, but in the course of a few years suffered a second demolition by hurricane and fire. Those charged with its conduct became seriously embarrassed by these casualties and the lack of funds, and the institution soon ceased to have an active existence. By act of December 22, 1808, the Legislature directed the trustees to sell the estate, and, all debts being paid, to provide for the distribution of the proceeds among certain eleemosynary institutions in the city of Savannah.⁴ In 1854 the Board of Managers of the Union Society purchased a part of the original Bethesda tract, and upon the very spot formerly occupied by Whitefield's Orphan House erected buildings for the accommodation of the boys committed to their charitable care. "Thus happily," exclaims Colonel Jones,⁵ "is the philanthropic scheme of the most noted of English pulpit orators, who 'loved to range in the American woods,' who was never happier than when

¹ "And whereas there is in this State a very considerable property, as well real as personal, known and distinguished by the name of Bethesda College, or Orphan House estate, originally intended for an academy, and devised in trust by the late Reverend *George Whitefield*, for literary and benevolent purposes, to *Selina, Countess of Huntingdon*. Be it enacted, etc." (Section III of Act of February 1, 1788. *Watkins's Digest*, p. 373.)

² Mr. Whitefield in his will had expressed the wish that, as soon as might be after his decease, the plan of the intended Orphan House or Bethesda College might be prosecuted.

³ Act of December 20, 1791. (*Marbury and Crawford's Digest*, p. 566.)

⁴ One-fifth of the net proceeds was to be applied to the uses of the Savannah Poor House and Hospital Society; and of the remainder of such net sum, one-half was to be paid to the Union Society in Savannah, and the other half to the Chatham Academy (which was established by Act of February 1, 1788), to increase their funds for the instruction of youth generally; the proviso in the case of the latter being that it should support and educate five orphans. (*John A. Cuthbert's Digest of School Laws*, Milledgeville, 1832. Pp. 47-8.)

⁵ *History of Georgia*, Vol. I, pp. 414-15.

'holding a levee of wounded souls,' and whose generous arms were ever open to succor the poor and the orphan, perpetuated in the living present."

In another place,¹ referring to the valuable services performed by the school at Bethesda, the same author says: "That this orphan house, in the face of many disappointments connected with its advancement to the stage of usefulness and prosperity anticipated and predicted for it, was an institution of great benefit to the colony, and that its sheltering arms ministered to the comfort of many homeless orphans and pointed the way to future industry, respectability, and independence, cannot be questioned. True it is that several persons who exercised a controlling influence over Georgia affairs during the last quarter of the eighteenth century were wards of this charity."²

¹ History of Georgia, Vol. I, pp. 405-6.

² Among them may be mentioned Milledge and Ewen, both Governors of Georgia, and Langworthy, who was a delegate from that State to the Continental Congress.

CHAPTER II.

SCHOOLS AFTER THE REVOLUTIONARY WAR.

THE ACADEMY OF RICHMOND COUNTY.

Some months had elapsed after the signing of the Declaration of Independence when Georgia took her next step in educational progress. This was effected under the Constitution of 1777, the fifty-fourth section of which provided that schools should be erected in each county, and supported at the general expense of the State.¹ During the Revolutionary War, such were the distractions of the period and of the community, that all efforts for education, either public or private, were wholly omitted. Upon the return of peace and the adjustment of affairs, both private and political, attention was once more directed to this important subject.

The earliest legislation in regard to public education occurring after the war will be found in an act for laying out the reserve land in the town of Augusta into acre lots, the erecting of an academy or seminary of learning, and for other purposes therein mentioned, assented to July 31, 1783.² By the fourteenth section of this act, the Governor was empowered to grant one thousand acres of land for a free school in each county. Under the same act provision was made for the establishment of a free school in the town of Washington, Wilkes County, and of two academies, one at Waynesborough, Burke County, and the other at Augusta, in the county of Richmond. Of the academies the latter only deserves special consideration, partly from the fact of its longevity, it having from the beginning almost uninterruptedly maintained an active existence, but particularly on account of the historic memories which are connected with it.

After reciting, "And whereas a seminary of learning is greatly necessary for the instruction of our youth, and ought to be one of the first objects of attention, after the promotion of religion,"³ the act directed the town commissioners to lay out the reserve land of Augusta into acre lots and sell them. With the moneys arising from such sales they

¹ Watkins's Digest, p. 15.

² Marbury and Crawford's Digest, pp. 132-4.

³ Section 4 of Act.

were, among other things, to erect an academy. This was the origin of what has since been known as the Academy of Richmond County. The school was regularly opened in 1785, and on the 25th of March of that year, we are told, "Mr. William Rogers, late of the State of Maryland, having been well recommended as being of good fame and sufficiently learned in the sciences," was appointed master of the academy, at a salary of two hundred pounds a year, with the use of the tenement buildings and the garden on the premises. He was required to teach the Latin, Greek, and English languages, and the common practical branches of mathematics. The tuition of the highest class of pupils was fixed at ten dollars per quarter. The master, as he was called, had the assistance of one, and afterward of two tutors.¹

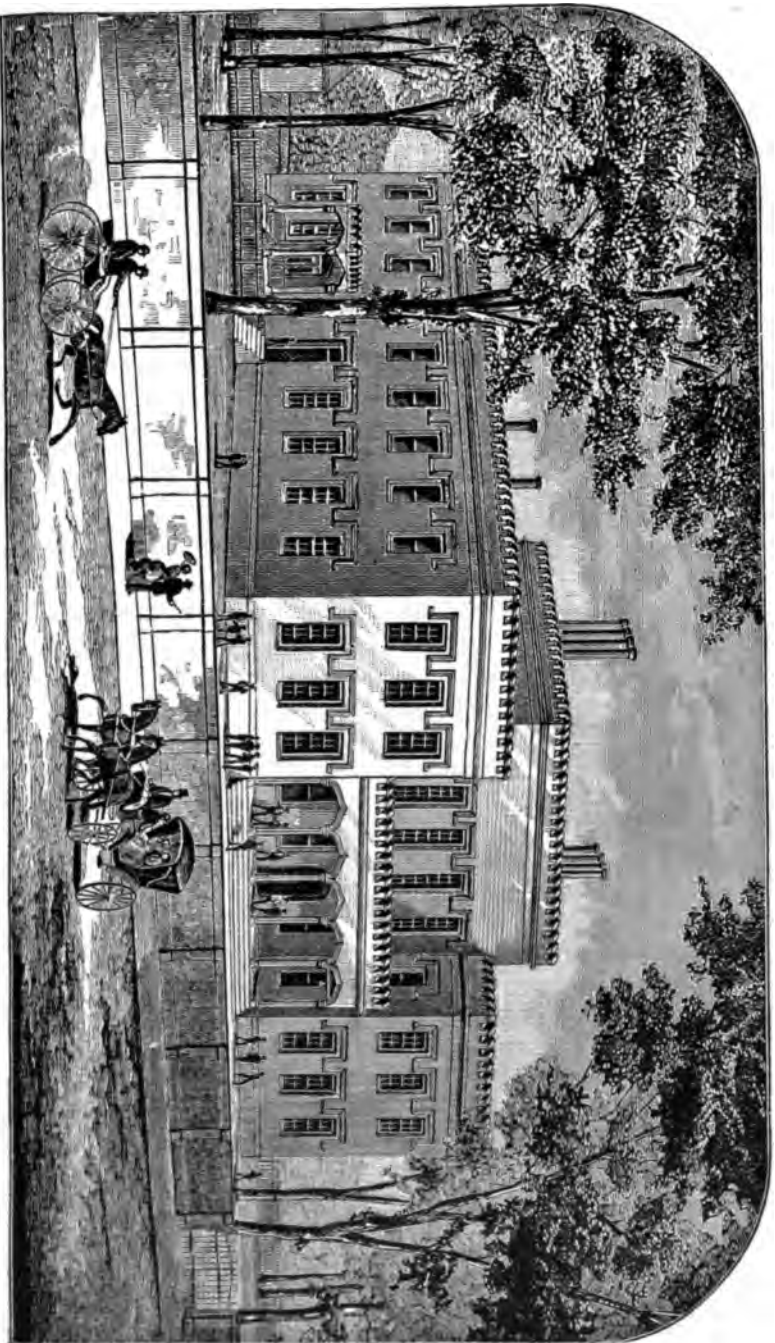
Mr. Rogers was re-elected annually to the office of rector of the academy until 1793. Three years later the Hon. William H. Crawford, who was afterward United States Senator from Georgia, minister to France under President Madison, and Secretary of War under President Monroe, became connected with the institution, serving two terms as English teacher in the academy, and one in the capacity of rector, resigning the latter position in 1799. In 1826 James P. Waddell, subsequently a professor of ancient languages in the University of Georgia, assumed the control of the school, holding the rectorship during six successive terms. The present faculty of the academy consists of three teachers, its principal being a prominent graduate of the University of Virginia.

The original trustees of the Academy of Richmond County were George Walton, Joseph Panuill, Andrew Burns, William Glascock, and Samuel Jack. The number was subsequently increased to seven, and then to nine, as at present. The office of president of the Board was created in 1788, William Glascock being the first incumbent. Since Mr. Glascock sixteen persons, including the one now serving, have successively filled the position.

In 1790, Augusta still being the seat of government of Georgia, the building occupied by the academy, upon its tender by the trustees, was accepted and utilized for the transaction of the general business of the State. In May of the following year the academy was honored by a visit from President Washington, who, in his tour through the States, had stopped at Augusta. The General expressed himself highly pleased with the condition and conduct of the institution, and complimented the teachers upon the fine appearance of their pupils. In 1815 a branch school was located and organized on the Sand Hills, near Augusta, which for many years subserved the purposes of a preparatory department for the academy.

The academy continued in successful operation until the latter part of the Civil War, when it was used by the Confederate authorities as a hospital. It was occupied by United States troops for a year or more after the termination of hostilities, and was then restored to its trustees, who,

¹ Hand-Book of Augusta, etc. Augusta, Ga., 1878. Pp. 63-5.



ACADEMY OF RICHMOND COUNTY.

through the active and efficient intervention of Gen. George W. Rains, as regent, succeeded in reopening it on the 1st of January, 1868. Since that time the institution has been regular in its exercises, averaging annually from eighty to ninety pupils. The session of 1882-83, which concluded with a centennial celebration of the academy, was among the most prosperous of its existence. There were in attendance that year over one hundred pupils.

The present academical structure, situated in the midst of an ample grove of trees, was completed in 1802 at a cost of fifteen or twenty thousand dollars. Prior to this time the academy classes were instructed in a building specially rented for that purpose.

The Academy of Richmond County is well endowed for an institution of its sort, having funds sufficient to meet all current expenses and add not less than one thousand dollars per annum to its endowment fund.¹

SUNBURY ACADEMY.

The legislation of the next two years (viz, 1784 and 1785), educationally considered, had reference to the establishment of the University of Georgia, and will not, therefore, concern us until we come to speak of the colleges; so we pass on to February 1, 1788, a date memorable at least for the foundation of two academies, one at Sunbury, in Liberty County, and the other at Savannah, in Chatham County. The only remarks which need be made in connection with the Chatham Academy are that, by the act incorporating it, vacant land, not to exceed in quantity five thousand acres, was reserved for its use;² and that it was one of the beneficiaries at the sale of the Bethesda property in 1808, and received two-fifths of the proceeds.³

The Academy at Sunbury⁴ was, in an educational point of view, the *e pluribus unum* of its time; and when the act of February 1, 1788,⁵ gave it "a local habitation and a name," it soon rose to a high and influential position among the schools of southern Georgia. Abiel Holmes, James Dunwody, John Elliott, Gideon Dowse, and Peter Winn were nominated in the act as commissioners. To them, or a majority of them, was authority given to sell at public sale, and upon previous notice of thirty days in one of the gazettes of the State, any confiscated property within the County of Liberty to the amount of one thousand pounds.⁶

¹ In his address before the Georgia Historical Society in 1845, Doctor Church said: "The Richmond Academy has buildings and library and apparatus worth probably \$30,000, an annuity from real estate amounting to \$1,600, and bank stock to the amount of \$12,000, besides lands which are rapidly increasing in value." (White's Statistics of Georgia, p. 71.)

² Marbury and Crawford's Digest, p. 563.

³ Cuthbert's Digest, pp. 47-8.

⁴ Jones's Dead Towns of Georgia. Savannah, 1878. Pp. 212-16.

⁵ Watkins's Digest, p. 380.

⁶ This authority to sell confiscated property was, so far as records show, conferred then for the first time; nor did the granting of it become general in the State until some years later.

This sum, when realized, was to be by them expended in the construction of a building suitable for the purposes of the academy.

The fair fame of Sunbury Academy is lastingly associated with the name of Rev. William McWhir, under whose able and energetic management it passed through its most successful period. This teacher, writes Colonel Jones,¹ "did more than all others to establish a standard of scholarship and maintain rules of study and discipline unusual in that period and among those peoples. * * * Great was the obligation conferred upon the youths of southern Georgia, for certainly two generations, by this competent instructor and rigid disciplinarian." A native of Ireland, a graduate of Belfast College, and licensed to preach by the Presbytery of that city, he came to America in 1783 and settled in Alexandria, Va. There, for ten years, he was the principal of the academy of which General Washington was a trustee. Removing to Sunbury about 1793, he took charge of the academy, and, for nearly thirty years, made it the leading institution of learning in that entire region. Besides the Latin, Greek, and English departments, with which Doctor McWhir was thoroughly conversant, the higher branches of mathematics were also taught; and, as a preparatory school, Sunbury Academy, under his guidance, had no superior within the limits of the State. The average attendance was about seventy. Pupils were attracted not only from Liberty, but also from the adjacent counties of Chatham, Bryan, McIntosh, and Glynn. Some came from even greater distances.

The school-house—a large two-story-and-a-half double wooden building, about sixty feet square, and located in King's Square—was pulled down and sold some time about the year 1842.

Sunbury Academy has itself passed away; but not without leaving an influence on Georgia's educational progress which the State will always gratefully recognize.

OTHER ACADEMIES.

The second Constitution of Georgia, which was adopted in 1789, contained no specific grants in respect to education. Three years later, however, in December, 1792,² we find an act authorizing the commissioners of the county academies to purchase one thousand pounds' value of confiscated property for the use and support of their respective institutions. Similar provisions were made in 1802³ and in 1810,⁴ and were designed to cover all cases where the commissioners had not as yet received their portion. By the act of February 22, 1796,⁵ an academy was established at Louisville, in Jefferson County. This and the academies already erected at Augusta, Waynesborough, Savannah, Bruns-

¹ *Dead Towns of Georgia*, p. 214.

² *Cuthbert's Digest*, p. 25.

³ *Clayton's Digest*, p. 677.

⁴ Act of December 8, 1810 (*Clayton's Digest*, pp. 598, 599).

⁵ *Marbury and Crawford's Digest*, pp. 567, 568.

wick (Glynn County),¹ and Sunbury, were all, so far as the writer has been able to discover,² which had been incorporated in the State prior to the present century.

At this stage of our subject it may be well to quote the ample provision contained in Article IV, Section 13, of the third Constitution of Georgia,—that of 1798:³

“The arts and sciences shall be promoted in one or more seminaries of learning, and the Legislature shall, as soon as conveniently may be, give such further donations and privileges to those already established, as may be necessary to secure the objects of their institution; and it shall be the duty of the General Assembly, at their next session, to provide effectual measures for the improvement and permanent security of the funds and endowments of such institutions.”

Truthfully, and with even greater force, does Doctor Church's observation in regard to the Constitution of 1777 apply to the Constitution of 1798; for, had the broad-minded views which found expression in the latter been fully carried out, “Georgia would now have a system of education equal, if not superior, to that of any State in the Union.”⁴

In 1802, as has been seen, the General Assembly re-enacted the provision respecting the privilege of “claiming a credit of £1,000” at the sales of confiscated lands which had previously⁵ been accorded to the commissioners of county academies. The first institutions to avail themselves of the benefits of this legislation were the Academies of Greene County and Washington County, which were established about 1803.⁶ They were followed by Oglethorpe Academy, the name of which was shortly after its foundation⁷ changed to Meson Academy. Effingham Academy was the next in order, being incorporated in 1809;⁸ and in 1810⁹ Mt. Enon Academy was chartered, which had been in operation since

¹ Founded under the act of February 1, 1788. (Watkins's Digest, p. 381.)

² See Watkins's and Marbury and Crawford's Digests. From an act approved December 14, 1793 (Marbury and Crawford's Digest, pp. 141-2), it appears that the portion of the moneys arising from the sale of acre lots in the town of Washington, Wilkes County, which was intended, under the act of July 31, 1783, to be applied to the erection and equipment of a free school there, had been utilized in the establishment of an academy, and that the same had been duly organized, and the services of teachers engaged. See also act of December 12, 1804 (Clayton's Digest, p. 213), by which the commissioners of the institution above alluded to were authorized to inaugurate a lottery for the purpose of raising two thousand dollars toward finishing the academy and purchasing literary apparatus for it.

³ Watkins's Digest, p. 42.

⁴ Discourse delivered before the Georgia Historical Society on the 12th day of February, 1845, by Dr. Alonzo Church, president of the University of Georgia. (White's Statistics of Georgia, p. 66.)

⁵ In 1792.

⁶ See Clayton's Digest, pp. 149-50 and 181.

⁷ Act of November 27, 1-07. (Cuthbert's Digest, pp. 135-6.)

⁸ An Act to incorporate the commissioners of the academy of Effingham County, passed December 1, 1809. (*Ibid.*, p. 61.)

⁹ Act of December 15, 1810. (Clayton's Digest, p. 666.)

1806.¹ The year 1811² gave birth to the Mount Zion and Powellton Academies, both of them in Hancock County. The former enjoyed an enviable reputation for many years.³ They were subsequently incorporated, Powellton Academy in 1815,⁴ and Mt. Zion Academy in 1823.⁵ In December, 1815,⁶ the Sand Hills Academy was founded. It was a branch school to the Academy of Richmond County until 1866, when it became an independent organization.

In 1816 Eatontou Academy, in Putnam County, was established, and for its support the funds and property formerly belonging to the Union Academy⁷ were transferred to its trustees. Two years afterward Sparta Academy, in Hancock County, and academies in Jackson and Jasper Counties were incorporated. In 1819 the Washington County Academy received a charter, being then in the sixteenth year of its active existence; and during the next twenty years the work of the erection of academies in Georgia rapidly progressed. We are told by Mr. Evans (History of Georgia, p. 206) that there were sixty-four academies in active operation in 1829; and that (p. 232) in 1840 academies had been built in the State to the number of one hundred and seventy-six, with an aggregate attendance of eight thousand pupils. These institutions of learning have grown with the growth of the State, and may now be found in every county and town in Georgia. A reference to pages 443-9 of the Report of the Commissioner of Education for 1884-85 will show the names of some of the more recently established academies.

THE ROMAN CATHOLIC ACADEMIES.

It may not seem improper, in this connection, to notice the Roman Catholic academies, which, while perhaps in some of their features aspiring to a place among colleges, still, generally speaking, deserve to be classed with the institutions just alluded to. There are six principal academies of the Roman Catholic denomination in Georgia. Of these the first established was the Academy of St. Vincent de Paul, located at Savannah, and founded in 1845. It was incorporated in 1849, under the title of the Savannah Institute of the Sisters of Mercy, and enjoys the distinction of being not only the pioneer Catholic academy in the

¹ Campbell's Georgia Baptists, p. 195.

² Evans's History of Georgia, p. 142.

³ Rev. C. P. Beman, who afterward was president of Oglethorpe University, was for a considerable period in successful and efficient management of this institution. The present able president of the Georgia State Agricultural Society (organized in 1846), Hon. W. J. Northen, was also at one time associated, in the capacity of principal, with the Mount Zion Academy.

⁴ Act of November 23, 1815. (Lamar's Compilations, pp. 4-5.)

⁵ An Act to establish and fix the name of the Academy at Mount Zion, in the county of Hancock, and to incorporate the trustees thereof. Passed December 20, 1823. (Cuthbert's Digest, pp. 86-7.)

⁶ The act authorized the trustees of the Richmond Academy to establish a seminary of learning on the Sand Hills, near Augusta, to be held and considered as a branch of the Richmond Academy. (*Ibid.*, pp. 150-1.)

⁷ Incorporated by act of December 15, 1809. (Clayton's Digest, pp. 581-2.)

State, but also the parent of three out of the five Catholic academies of high rank which have since arisen. I refer to the St. Mary's Academy and the Sacred Heart Academy at Augusta, and the Academy of the Immaculate Conception in Atlanta, the respective dates of their foundation being 1853, 1876, and 1867. In 1876 an academy was started at Macon, by the name of Mt. De Sales Academy. All these academies were organized and conducted by the Sisters of Mercy, but the last was founded by a distinct branch of that order and independently of the rest.

We conclude with St. Joseph's Academy, situated at Washington, Wilkes County, and under the direction of the Sisters of St. Joseph. This academy was likewise established in 1876, but did not receive its charter until 1878. Although it professes to have the right of granting diplomas, and conferring all degrees peculiar to female colleges in the State of Georgia, and has what it terms a collegiate department in addition to the elementary and preparatory departments, the course of study pursued there does not appear to materially differ from, or to be in any way superior to, the curricula in the other academies. It consists, in the case of the graduating classes, of Christian doctrine, trigonometry, English literature, mythology, geology, astronomy, logic, and moral philosophy.

A department of music is embraced in each of these schools, and special emphasis is laid upon this feature of the instruction. The academies are well attended, and offer good advantages.

ELEMENTARY EDUCATION.

So much for what Georgia has accomplished in the way of academical instruction. The important influence which her academies exerted in the earlier periods of her history cannot be questioned, nor can it be doubted that the academies were largely instrumental in laying, broad and deep, the foundations upon which the system of colleges and universities was subsequently to rest. Let us remember, however, that the facilities for education, as afforded in academies, were not accessible to all. Many there were who lived far beyond the reach of the towns and cities, where the majority of those institutions were located; under such circumstances recourse was had to the elementary schools, in which they found their only source of educational supply. In these schools the simplest elements of learning, viz, spelling, reading, penmanship, arithmetic, and sometimes English grammar and geography, were taught; and they were, Doctor Orr tells us, the sole reliance throughout the rural districts of the State for many years. We are indebted to him for the following account¹ of the general plan upon which these elementary schools were conducted :

"The men who taught them were often incompetent—being sometimes

¹ See the Educational Needs of the South; an Address delivered before the Department of Superintendence of the National Educational Association, at the meeting of 1879, by Gustavus J. Orr. Washington, 1879. Pp. 13.

without natural capacity, attainments, or aspirations—and now and then even persons of bad morals. There were among them no teachers' institutes or associations, no circulating libraries, no educational periodicals—in short, nothing approaching the modern appliances provided with a view to professional elevation. There was no examination of teachers, no issuing of license as a condition precedent to obtaining a school, and no supervision. Every teacher was isolated, entirely dependent upon his own ability to modify methods or originate better ones, and completely and absolutely independent in the little realm over which he held sway. The obtaining of a school was entirely a matter of contract between himself as teacher and his proposed patrons. The latter were often utterly incompetent to judge of the teacher's qualifications, and hinged their acceptance or rejection of him solely upon the rates at which he offered his services. A vivid picture of one of the more harmless of this class of 'old field school-masters,' as they were called, is drawn in the person of Michael St. John, in the *Georgia Scenes*, a book of infinite humor, written by my venerated and revered preceptor, Hon. Augustus B. Longstreet; while a type of the more brutal class is given us in the character of Israel Meadows, of the celebrated *Philemon Perch Papers*, of which Col. Richard M. Johnston, now of Pen Lucy Academy, near Baltimore, is the author."

THE POOR SCHOOL SYSTEM.

The next subject we will consider is the poor school system, in regard to which it has been said,¹ that this "so-called system had no system in it, that it was full of defects, and that it was lacking in a hundred of the elements that make up an efficient public school system." Nevertheless "it answered a valuable purpose in its day. It placed the elements of an imperfect English education within reach of the entire white population, among whom the means of comfortable support were so general as to be well-nigh universal."

ORIGIN OF THE SYSTEM.

This system² took its rise in the act of July 31, 1783. By the fourteenth section of that act, and in pursuance of a provision therein made respecting the erection of a free school in the town of Washington, Wilkes County, the Governor, upon proper application, was empowered to grant one thousand acres of vacant land for the establishment of free schools in the several counties of the State. Here was the beginning of

¹ Doctor Orr's Address on the Educational Needs of the South, p. 7.

² Report on Public Education, by Mr. Lewis, of Hancock, with Appendices giving Statistics of School Returns, and other Documents on the Subject. Milledgeville, Ga., 1860.

Popular Education in Georgia; a History of Education in the State, with Suggestions to an Improved System of Public Schools, by Martin V. Calvin. Augusta, Ga., 1870. Pp. 12.

Also Cuthbert's, Prince's (2d ed. to 1837), and Cobb's Digests.

the poor school system in Georgia, although it was not thoroughly inaugurated, and no decided action was taken until December 18, 1817, when an act was passed to create and establish a fund for the support of free schools throughout the State,¹ and an appropriation of two hundred and fifty thousand dollars was made for that purpose. By an act for the "permanent endowment of county academies, and to increase the funds heretofore set apart for the encouragement and support of free schools, and for the internal improvement of the State,"² approved December 21, 1821, the General Assembly provided for the division of five hundred thousand dollars equally between the academies and free schools. Hence originated the distinction which so long obtained in Georgia between the Academic and the Poor School Funds. Under the act of December 22, 1823,³ provision was made for the investment of the latter fund, and the distribution of the annual income, amounting to between twenty and thirty thousand dollars, among the counties in proportion to their white population, for the education of the poor children, and in payment for their tuition. An act of the preceding year had specified what persons should be the beneficiaries of the fund.⁴ "It was not," we are told,⁵ "the policy to establish separate schools for these indigent children. Such teachers of the academies and of the inferior or elementary schools as were willing to submit to an examination, which was often a mere matter of form and conducted by incompetent examiners, were entitled, if approved, to receive their pro rata of the public fund for teaching any children adjudged by certain magistrates as belonging to the class known as 'poor scholars,' who may have entered their schools."⁶

¹ Prince's Digest, p. 18.

² *Ibid.*, p. 19.

³ Dawson's Compilations, p. 14.

⁴ Act of December 23, 1822. The sixth section says that "no child shall be sent to school under the age of eight or exceeding eighteen years; and no child shall be sent to school at public expense more than three years." (Dawson's Compilations, p. 11.) But an act to amend the second and fourth sections of an act to provide for the education of the poor, assented to 27th of December, 1843 (in which it was declared that, in order to be received and educated, the poor children must be between the ages of eight and sixteen years), provided that the children to be returned to the inferior courts by the justices of the peace, or other persons in the several militia districts, should be between the ages of six and sixteen years, and that the poor children to be reported by the justices of the inferior court of each county to His Excellency, the Governor, should be between the ages of six and sixteen years. (Act of February 14, 1850. Laws of 1850, p. 154.) See also act of December 17, 1857 (Laws of 1857, p. 10).

⁵ Dr. Orr's Address on the Educational Needs of the South, p. 7.

⁶ From the New York Teacher for May, 1855 (Vol. IV, p. 88), we find that "every indigent child in Georgia had the right to go to school at six and a quarter cents a day, to be paid by the county." According to Mr. Lewis's Report on Public Education, which was published in 1860, the whole number of poor children then in Georgia was safely estimated at from forty to fifty thousand—about one-third of all the children in the State between the ages of six and sixteen, the whole number of the latter being, by computation, something over one hundred and forty thousand.

By an act of December 23, 1836, one-third of the surplus revenue, amounting to three hundred and fifty thousand dollars, was set apart as "a permanent free school and education fund," and a joint committee of five, two from the Senate and three from the House of Representatives, was appointed, whose duty it was "to digest a plan of common school education best adapted to the genius, habits of life and of thought, of the people of Georgia," and two of whom were authorized to visit, during the ensuing year, different parts of the United States, and particularly the New England States, ascertain the operation of their several school systems, and report to the General Assembly at its next session a plan of common schools. They were also empowered to "institute a correspondence with such persons as they might think proper, either in the United States or Europe, or both, for the purpose of getting information of some of the different systems of common school education which likewise prevail in some of the European countries."¹

They fulfilled their mission. The report, as submitted by the committee, while objecting to the moral and social tendency of the manual labor system considered as a system of general education to be adopted and followed by the Government, as well as to the general application of the Laveleyean plan of instruction, recommended the adoption of a system not unlike that in vogue in the Eastern and Middle States. It assumed, above all, as a leading principle, that the good of the community required that the rich and the poor should be educated together at common schools. It was further stated, as the result of investigation, that out of eighty-three thousand children in the State, only twenty-five thousand of that number were in attendance upon schools.²

The Legislature amended and modified this report, and in 1837 passed an act establishing a general system of education by common schools,³ to take effect in 1839. By that act the academic and poor school funds were consolidated; and, together with the interest on one-third part of the surplus revenue, were constituted "a general fund for common schools." In the following year this act was modified in some of its provisions, and the inferior courts (at their discretion), on the recommendation of the grand jury, were authorized to levy an extra tax in their respective counties, not exceeding fifty per cent. on the general tax. The amount thus raised was to be added to the common school fund.⁴

REPEAL OF THE ACTS PROVIDING FOR A COMMON SCHOOL SYSTEM.

In 1840 the acts of 1837 and 1838, establishing a system of common schools, were repealed, and the funds for their support were set apart as a poor school fund.⁵ This legislative act was amended in 1843, and

¹ Prince's Digest, pp. 26-7.

² American Annals of Education, Vol. VIII, p. 39 (published 1838)

³ Act of December 26, 1837. (Laws of 1837, pp. 94-9.)

⁴ Act of December 27, 1838. (Laws of 1838, pp. 96-9.)

⁵ Act of December 10, 1840. (Laws of 1840, pp. 61-5.)

the inferior courts were authorized to raise by an extra tax an amount sufficient, when added to the pro rata distribution from the State, to educate the poor children in their respective counties.¹ The leading provision of the law establishing the poor school system made it the duty of the magistrates in the districts to report to the inferior court, annually, the names of all the children in their respective districts deemed by them proper persons to receive a portion of the fund set apart for the education of the poor. These returns were sent by the inferior court to the "executive office," and formed the basis for the distribution of the fund, which amounted to about twenty thousand dollars.²

OBJECTIONS TO THE POOR SCHOOL SYSTEM.

This duty of the magistrates, under the law, to make returns of the poor children, was often entirely neglected. Even when made these returns were very imperfect. Not more than three-fourths of the poor children in the State were returned, and of those returned (as was learned from commissioners of the poor school fund in a few counties), little more than half were sent to school, and those who went did not attend four months in the year. In 1849 thirty-two counties made no returns of their poor children. In 1850 fifteen counties failed to make returns; and notwithstanding the law provided that counties making no returns should participate in the educational fund agreeably to the last return on record,³ in the same year eight counties received nothing because they had never made a return.⁴ In further illustration of the general indifference then felt on the subject of poor schools, we quote from Governor George W. Crawford's message of 1845. He says that "during the past year [viz, 1844] only fifty-three of the ninety-three counties of the State made application at the treasury for their allotments of the poor school fund," and when, too, the penalty for default was known to be an absolute forfeiture of claim.⁵

Another objection to the poor school plan were its gross injustice to the poorer counties, where there were the greatest number of poor children and the least ability to bear taxation. For instance, the counties of Newton and Jasper paid into the treasury, as State tax, \$3,910, and returned some 120 poor children; whilst those of Union and Gilmer, which paid a State tax of \$1,594, returned 2,884 poor children.⁶

Mr. Calvin presents the following view of the poor schools, as they

¹ An act to provide for the education of the poor, assented to December 27, 1843. (Laws of 1843, pp. 43-5.)

² Lewis's Report, p. 26. The poor school fund seems to have been originally much larger, for the same writer (p. 31), referring to the provision made for the education of indigent children, says that "as far back as 1836, forty thousand dollars were annually distributed for this purpose."

³ Prince's Digest, p. 22.

⁴ Lewis's Report, p. 27.

⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 83.

⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 27.

existed in 1869:¹ "Under the laws now in force," he writes, "a board of education in each county, consisting of the Ordinary, as ex-officio treasurer of the poor school fund, and a commissioner appointed by the judge of the superior court, issues license to almost any person, authorizing said person to teach when, where, and how he or she may please. As a general rule, the teacher provides his own school-room and school furniture (of the most primitive kind), and is allowed seven cents a day for each pupil in actual attendance; he files his account with the Ordinary quarterly, and receives compensation at the expiration of the year.

* * * No argument is necessary to prove that the absolute effect of this system is to transform the State schools from common schools (such as the people wish) into the veriest pauper or 'poor schools,' as they are termed. The law-making power seems all the while to have been laboring under the impression that the children in our State belong to two classes—regarding the one as belonging to rich families, and the other as paupers. This is a mistake, though measurably adhered to still. We have made these schools mere charities. * * *

The 'poor schools' of this State, by reason of the law which creates them, are robbed of the influence for good that they might otherwise wield. The very law subjects every patron of these schools to the jeer of pauperism."

In the same spirit had Governor William Schley written, as far back as 1837. In referring to the distinction as made by the General Assembly of academic and poor school funds, he remarked: "There should be no such designations as *academic* and *poor school*, because they are invidious and insulting. Poverty, though a great inconvenience, is no crime; and it is highly improper, whilst you offer to aid the cause of education, to say to a portion of the people, 'You are poor.' Thousands of freemen who, though indigent, are honest, patriotic, and valuable citizens, will refuse your bounty and despise the hand that offers it, because it is accompanied with insult."²

The truth of Governor Schley's observation was abundantly confirmed by the results which everywhere attended the workings of the poor school system. We are told by Kiddle and Schem³ that in 1850 there were in Georgia 213,903 white adults, of whom twenty per cent. were unable to read and write; and a reference to the United States Census of 1860, when the number of illiterates had been reduced to eighteen per cent., shows that there were then in the State 16,900 males and 26,784 females (white) over twenty-one years of age, ignorant of even the simplest rudiments of learning.

Amply had it been demonstrated that the poor school system in its then state was wholly inadequate to meet the educational demands which it was designed to supply. Clearly apparent it was that a reform in

¹ Popular Education in Georgia, p. 5.

² Lewis's Report, pp. 76-7.

³ Cyclopædia of Education. New York and London, 1877. Page 347.

its methods was greatly needed, and that a system was wanted which, in the language of Thomas R. R. Cobb, "should remedy these defects, avoiding others: schools to which the children of the poorest citizens might be sent without submitting parent or child to the jeer of pauperism: school-houses which should awaken a feeling of pride in every neighborhood,¹ and cause the richest to feel that no private teaching can afford equal advantages to the common schools."

For a correct understanding of the difficulties inherent in and the reason for the failure of the poor school plan, it must be remembered that, previous to the Civil War, the people of Georgia looked to private or independent schools for the education of their sons and daughters. The system of education adopted and attempted by the State contemplated that provision should be made for the instruction of indigent white children in the elementary branches of an English education. The question of the cost of tuition in private schools was not considered. The stand-point from which the people viewed the subject rendered the consideration of that item entirely unnecessary. The means were at hand, and the people cheerfully used them. Public sentiment, as a rule, was against the suggestion that it was the province and duty of the State to educate her youth. It was conceded, however, that the State might, with measurable propriety, provide for the intellectual training of children whose parents were *too poor* to pay tuition in the independent schools.² To this end it was that poor schools were established; and had that fatal error which was the spirit and leading idea of the theory upon which the system was based from its inception to its abolition—I mean the condition of pauperism, which was an inseparable incident to a participation in its benefits—been thoroughly eradicated, there can be no doubt that the system would have proved a most wholesome institution, and one productive of considerable good for the indigent classes.

¹ In speaking of the poor schools, Mr. Calvin says (Popular Education in Georgia, p. 7): "They [poor schools] are never visited. They are generally accounted 'Hedge Schools,' and so denominated, secretly and openly."

² Augusta Centennial Chronicle, Augusta, Ga., May, 1885.

CHAPTER III.

THE PUBLIC SCHOOL SYSTEM.¹

HISTORY OF THE ORGANIZATION OF THE PUBLIC SCHOOL SYSTEM.

That there was no regularly organized system of common schools supported by public taxation in Georgia prior to the Civil War has been already shown. Of the attempts toward the establishment of such a system we are now to speak. Efforts were made in 1845 and again in 1856 to inaugurate a common school system in the State, both of which were unsuccessful. Still it was evident that the people of Georgia were beginning to feel the need, and were expecting the erection of public, or free schools. They took their first step in that direction when, on December 11, 1858, the Legislature set apart one hundred thousand dollars annually of the net earnings of the Western and Atlantic Railroad (State property) for educational purposes; and provided that, upon the payment of any portion of the public debt of the State by means of the sinking fund, bonds of the State to a like amount should be executed by the Governor and deposited with the Secretary of State, who should hold them as trustee of the educational fund, the interest thereon at six per cent. to be appropriated to school purposes.²

¹ Thomas P. Jones's *Hand-Book of Georgia*. Atlanta, Ga., 1876. Pp. 179-82.

Henderson's *Commonwealth of Georgia*, etc. Atlanta, Ga., 1885. Pp. 257-63.

Dr. Orr's *Address on the Best School System for a Southern State*. Atlanta, Ga., 1886. Pp. 16. Also his *Reports to the General Assembly from 1878 to 1887*, and the *Report for 1888* of his successor, James S. Hook.

Public School Laws of the State of Georgia of General Operation and now of Force throughout the State. Atlanta, Ga., 1886.

Report on a System of Public Schools for the State of Georgia. Savannah, 1870. Pp. 18.

Popular Education in Georgia, etc., by Martin V. Calvin. Augusta, Ga., 1870. Pp. 12.

Code of Georgia, 1882. Pp. 260-7.

Extract from Governor Smith's *Message to the Legislature in January, 1877* (quoted in *Derry's Georgia*, etc.). Philadelphia, 1878. Pp. 109-12.

² See an act to provide for the education of the people of this State between certain ages, and to provide an annual sinking fund for the extinguishment of the public debt. (*Acts of 1858*, pp. 49-51.) By an act to "alter and amend" this, approved December 21st of the following year, it was provided that the ages of the children who were to receive the benefits of education from this source should be between six and eighteen years (*Laws of 1859*, pp. 29-30).

These measures contemplated the realization at no distant day of a fund sufficient to establish free schools throughout the State. This anticipation would probably have been realized but for the Civil War. The provisions of the law went so far as to allow the people of any county to establish free schools and use their share of the funds for this purpose; and, in 1860, in one county (Forsyth) free schools were established and successfully carried on.

The public school system, as now known in Georgia, sprang up after the War, and was essentially an outgrowth of the many changes effected by it. "Most of the States in the South," says Doctor Orr,¹ "in adopting new constitutions under the reconstruction acts, incorporated into the fundamental law the public school policy. * * * Not only were constitutions which provide for public education generally adopted, but in every State in the South the attempt has been made to inaugurate a school system under laws passed in accordance with the new constitutional requirements."

Georgia formed no exception to this rule. In her Constitution of 1868 she provided for "a thorough system of general education to be forever free to all children of the State."² Two years later, in October, 1870, the first public school law was enacted; and it is an interesting fact in connection with that law that its main provisions were identical with a plan submitted to the Legislature by the

FIRST STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

This body, in the month of August, 1869, held its first annual meeting, as a regular organization, in the city of Atlanta. A committee was raised to report upon a school system adapted to the condition and wants of Georgia. This report was to be submitted, first to the executive committee of the Association, and, after revision by its members, to the Association itself, at a special session to be held in the following November at Macon. Some changes were made in the committee after its first appointment, and it finally stood as follows: Gustavus J. Orr, the late respected State School Commissioner, chairman; the late Bernard Mallon, for many years superintendent of the schools of Atlanta; the late John M. Bonnell, at that time president of the Wesleyan Female College; Martin V. Calvin, a Representative in the Legislature from Richmond County; and David W. Lewis, late President of the North Georgia Agricultural College at Dahlouega.

A meeting of the committee was held, and each member having fully given his views,³ Doctor Orr was directed to write the report. When

¹ Educational Needs of the South, p. 9.

² Article VI, section 1. (Code of Georgia, 1873, p. 925.)

³ It is noteworthy that Mr. Calvin had read a paper (Popular Education in Georgia, etc.) before the Georgia Teachers' Association, at its meeting in August, 1869, which, after discussion, had been referred to a committee of five as above stated, who were instructed to report a system of common schools for the State; and that

he had performed this duty, his work was submitted to the executive committee, consisting of the Rev. Dr. H. H. Tucker, Prof. LeRoy Broun, the late Dr. Alexander Means, Prof. W. D. Williams, the late Dr. J. M. Bonnell, the late Mr. Mallon, and Doctor Orr himself, the last three being members of both committees. The report was read, and nine hours were spent in discussing it, section by section. The result of this careful examination was the adoption of the report as it was written. Another full discussion was had before the State Teachers' Association, that body devoting an entire day to the subject. A few slight alterations were made, and the report was unanimously adopted.

The Association then appointed a committee, composed of the Rev. Dr. H. H. Tucker, Col. D. W. Lewis, Dr. G. J. Orr, Mr. B. Mallon, and Hon. David E. Butler, to put the report in the shape of a bill, and urge the same upon the attention of the Legislature. Before the assembling of that body reconstruction was reconstructed, and many members were unseated and others substituted, by military orders, in their stead. Under the circumstances, the committee last raised thought it best not to be personally present when the Legislature convened, all concurring in this opinion. As the session advanced, however, Doctor Orr decided to see what could be done through two personal friends, the Hon. I. E. Shumate, Representative from the county of Whitfield, and the Hon. Council B. Wooten, Senator from the Eleventh District. Mr. Mallon, through personal friends in the body, co-operated. The result was that the plan of the Georgia Teachers' Association was laid before the Committee on Education of the House and Senate, and a bill was framed and became a law, following in its main provisions the system mapped out in the report, so carefully prepared, so critically examined, and so heartily adopted by the educators of Georgia.

the views urged in this paper were indorsed and incorporated in that report. Mr. Calvin, among other things, adverted to the necessity of establishing graded schools, and a State normal school, or schools, "where we can train our own teachers." He is said to have been the first to suggest the education of the colored as well as the white population. "Let the system be common to all," he writes, "but require their schools to be separate from those of the whites in fact and locality. Set apart the colored poll-tax, and the tax on their property to the support of their schools; and to the same end let the people add such sums as they may feel able to donate." He also advised the setting apart and application of one-half of the three hundred thousand dollars annually accruing from the State road for the support of common schools, the amount to be judiciously and promptly distributed among the different counties. Hon. William H. Stiles, of Chatham, had struck the key-note regarding normal schools many years before. In a speech delivered in the House of Representatives, January 29, 1856, he pointed out Georgia's standing as to rate of illiteracy as being the twenty-third in the Union, there being only four more illiterate States than herself, and urged the establishment of normal schools. He introduced a bill, the first section of which was: "That for the arrangement, supervision, and improvement of such schools as may be supported in any manner out of appropriations from the treasury of the State, or out of taxes specifically levied upon the counties for the purposes of education, the Governor shall appoint a Commissioner of Public Schools who shall hold his office for two years." This point the speaker emphasized.

The first changes made in the law were in January, 1872, these changes being brought about by a memorial from the same body as that from which the first plan emanated. The main effect of the alterations thus made was to cause the views of the Association, as embodied in their report, to be more closely followed than they had been in the first act. Much credit for the changes made at this time is due to Hon. Henry Jackson, then a Representative from Fulton County.

Under the act of October 13, 1870,¹ an organization was effected. Gen. J. R. Lewis was appointed State School Commissioner by Governor Bullock, and entered upon the duties of his office. Schools were very generally put in operation; but, as the Legislature had diverted the school fund to other purposes, when the schools closed there were no funds to pay a debt of about three hundred thousand dollars to school officers and teachers. This deficiency arose in part from the failure to collect the poll-tax during the years 1868, 1869, and 1870.²

When there occurred a change in the administration of the State, General Lewis having resigned, Governor Smith sent into the Senate as one of his two first appointees—the other being Chief-Justice Warner—the name of Gustavus J. Orr to be State School Commissioner. He was promptly confirmed by the Senate. This was in January, 1872, and he continued to occupy the position to which he was then appointed until the 13th of December, 1887, when death removed him from the discharge of his important and useful functions. On all occasions he manifested an interest in the welfare and advancement of public school education which can not be too highly commended. Almost his first official act was to direct school officers to make no efforts to establish public schools during the year 1872. This suspension was owing to the confusion in the school finances and the lack of confidence on the part of the people because of the unpaid debt of 1871.

At the summer session in 1872, upon the recommendation of the State School Commissioner, an act was passed to raise money to discharge this indebtedness.³ A large sum was raised and expended, and it is now well ascertained that under the provisions of this and of subsequent acts on the subject⁴ all, or very nearly all, valid claims have long since been settled.

At the request of Judge William M. Reese, Senator from the Twenty-ninth District, a bill was prepared by the State School Commissioner to "perfect the public school system and to supersede existing school

¹ An act to establish a system of public instruction. (Laws of 1870, pp. 19-31.)

² See also the act of October 25, 1870, which declared the collection of the poll-tax for those years illegal. (*Ibid.*, pp. 66-7, and Derry's Georgia, p. 110.)

³ "An act to provide for the payment of the debt due to teachers and school officers who did service under the public school law in the year 1871," approved August 19, 1872. (Laws of 1872, p. 62.)

⁴ See especially "An act to provide for the payment of the claims of school officers and teachers for services rendered in the year 1871," approved March 3, 1874. (Laws of 1874, p. 30.)

laws."¹ This bill was introduced into the Senate by Judge Reese in the summer of 1872, and was ably championed by him. It passed both branches of the Legislature, and practically² remains the general school law of the State.

It would be tedious to follow in detail all the legislation which has obtained since 1872. Many minor changes have been made, some of which were tried for a while and then repealed. Others still stand. Some of these changes have been wise and salutary. Several determined efforts have been made, from time to time, by the opponents of public schools to overturn the system, but on every occasion able defenders have arisen who have battled for and perpetuated its existence. The most signal triumph of its friends was when the Constitution of 1877 placed in the fundamental law the provision that there should be "a thorough system of common schools."³

SOURCES OF THE PUBLIC SCHOOL FUND.

The public school fund is derived from the following sources: The poll-tax, one-half the rental of the Western and Atlantic Railroad (one hundred and fifty thousand dollars), a tax on shows and exhibitions, a tax upon dealers in spirituous and malt liquors, the net proceeds of the hire of convicts, the net proceeds of the fees for the inspection of fertilizers, and certain other sources of minor importance. A direct property tax for the support of schools, though specifically authorized both by the Constitution of 1868 and that of 1877, and though often proposed, has never been levied.⁴ The school fund has increased gradually but surely, gaining little by little, and, like the mechanical power known as the screw, never losing anything once gained. In 1873 the total school fund was two hundred and fifty thousand dollars; in 1874, two hundred and sixty-five thousand. Year by year it has been growing, until, in 1887, we find the grand total of this fund to be \$795,987.⁵

The fund and the number who have come forward to participate in

¹ Act of August 23, 1872. (Acts of 1872, pp. 64-75.)

² "An act to amend, revise, and consolidate the common school laws of the State of Georgia, and for other purposes," better known as the Denny Bill, was approved by the General Assembly October 27, 1887 (Laws of 1887, pp. 68-83); but the changes which it introduces in the excellent provisions framed by Doctor Orr are so inconsiderable that no further allusion need be made to it, other than to state that its principal features may be found summarized in the Report of the Commissioner of Education for 1886-87, pp. 126-7.

³ Art. VIII, sec. 1, par. 1. (Code of Georgia, 1882, p. 1321.)

⁴ Such, however, is now no longer the case. Since the above was written a new state of things has supervened. The Legislature of Georgia, at its present session (1888-89), passed an act providing for the levy of a general property tax of \$165,000 for the current year (1889), and \$330,000 for the year next ensuing, for the support of the common schools of the State.

⁵ This includes the \$302,478 which constituted for that year the school fund of the various cities and counties in the State under local laws.

its benefits have increased with even pace. The early beginnings were small. In 1871 there were enrolled in the schools 42,914 white and 6,664 colored children. It was for the tuition of these that the large debt of three hundred thousand dollars was contracted. No debt has been allowed to be contracted since that date. In 1872, as before stated, there were no public schools.

In the early summer of 1873 the State School Commissioner assembled at Atlanta the county commissioners of the State in convention. This meeting was of great importance. Much enthusiasm was aroused; and, as the school finances were on a better basis than at any previous time, the commissioners returned to their respective counties resolved to inaugurate at once public schools. Right well were their resolutions carried out.

GRADUAL INCREASE IN ATTENDANCE.

The following table will show by years the steady advance in the number of children attending the public schools of the State; the enrolment, and the increase in enrolment; the average attendance, and the increase in average attendance, from the year 1871 to the year 1887, inclusive:

Year.	Enrolment.				Average attendance.	Increase over preceding year.
	White.	Colored.	Total.	Increase over preceding year.		
1871.....	42,914	6,664	49,578			
1872 ^a						
1873.....	63,922	19,735	83,677	34,099		
1874.....	93,167	42,374	135,541	51,864	83,839	
1875.....	105,990	50,385	156,375	20,834	98,029	12,190
1876.....	121,418	57,337	179,405	23,030	108,646	10,617
1877.....	128,296	62,330	190,626	11,221	119,160	10,571
1878.....	137,217	72,655	209,872	19,246	130,605	11,445
1879.....	147,192	79,435	223,627	16,755	^b 130,565	
1880.....	150,134	86,399	236,533	9,996	145,190	14,625
1881.....	153,156	91,041	244,179	7,646	149,908	4,718
1882.....	161,377	95,055	256,432	12,253	164,160	14,272
1883.....	175,668	111,743	287,411	30,979	188,371	24,191
1884.....	181,355	110,150	291,505	4,094	195,035	6,664
1885.....	190,346	119,248	309,594	18,079	209,184	14,149
1886.....	196,852	122,872	319,724	10,130	226,407	17,223
1887.....	208,665	133,429	342,294	22,570	226,290	

^a No public schools were put in operation in 1872.

^b The report of average attendance for 1879 was not full.

Thus will it be seen that there has never been a retrogression, either in the total number in attendance¹ or in the number of white scholars.

¹ There was a decrease in average attendance in 1887, as compared with that of the preceding year, of 117. These statistics have been obtained since the writing of the above.

The only falling off in attendance on the part of the colored pupils was in the single year 1884, there having been 1,593 more colored children in the public schools in 1883 than in 1884.

Let us now compare the attendance in 1873 with that in 1885. We find that in the former year there were 63,922 white children and 19,755 colored, or a total of 83,677 in the schools; in the latter year there were 190,346 white, and 119,248 colored pupils, making a total of 309,594 in attendance. From this we may see that the attendance has been in the case of white children 126,424 beyond what it was in 1873, and in the case of colored children an increase will be noted of 99,493; giving an aggregate increase of 225,917.

SPECIAL SCHOOL SYSTEMS.

Side by side with this general school system, established and made operative throughout the State by the school law of 1870, have grown up special school systems, regulated and controlled by local laws. Chatham County led the way, and was the first to have a separate system of her own.¹ She was shortly followed by Columbus.² This was in 1866, and antedated the passage of the first general public school law. Atlanta came next in order, her system being formed in 1870.³ Richmond and Bibb Counties inaugurated their systems in 1872,⁴ and Glynn County her system in 1873.⁵ In 1884, in addition to those just named, local laws and organized schools existed in Americus⁶ (Sumter County), West Point⁷ (Troup County), and Sandersville⁸ (Washington County), these systems having been developed through special laws enacted from time to time. In 1881⁹ public schools were organized in Rome, and a system was inaugurated for the city of Griffin¹⁰ (Spalding County) three years later. Of the thirty or more counties which now enjoy the privileges of special school systems, the more prominent are Richmond, Chatham (Savannah), Bibb, Clarke (Athens),¹¹ Floyd (Rome), Fulton (Atlanta), and Muscogee (Columbus).

¹ Historical Record of the City of Savannah. Savannah, 1869. Pp. 155-6. See also the act of March 21, 1866, and the act amendatory to it, approved December 18, 1866. (Laws of 1865-66, pp. 78 and 175.)

² Act of December 28, 1866. (Laws of 1866, p. 174.)

³ Act of September 30, 1870. (Laws of 1870, p. 481.)

⁴ Acts of August 23, 1872. (Laws of 1872, pp. 388 and 456.)

⁵ Act approved February 21, 1873. (Laws of 1873, p. 256.)

⁶ Act of February 13, 1873. (*Ibid.*, p. 114.)

⁷ Act approved February 7, 1877. (Laws of 1877, p. 192.)

⁸ Act of September 8, 1881. (Laws of 1880-81, p. 429.)

⁹ Act of August 11, 1881. (*Ibid.*, p. 421.)

¹⁰ Act approved December 24, 1884. (Laws of 1884-85, p. 331.)

¹¹ Act of October 15, 1885. (*Ibid.*, p. 603.)

THE MAIN FEATURES OF THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

The main features of the public school system were thus outlined by Doctor Orr in his address on the Best School System for a Southern State (pp. 11-13):

"1. The Constitution of the State provides that there shall be a thorough system of common schools for the education of children in the elementary branches of an English education only, the expenses of which shall be provided for by taxation or otherwise.¹ The same limitation which is thus put upon what the State may do educationally is also put upon what a county may do under authority from the State. No such limitation is put upon what a municipal corporation may do by State authority. Hence many of our cities and towns are having a much wider range of studies taught, some of them having established good high schools for both sexes. The general school law of the State provides for teaching spelling, reading, writing, English grammar, geography, and arithmetic, which may be considered as a legislative interpretation of the words 'elementary branches of an English education,' though these words are clearly susceptible of a wider interpretation. Our school law absolutely secures the continuance of public schools for the children of both races for three months of the year in every county of the State, and throughout the entire county.

"2. Both the Constitution and the school law provide that separate schools shall be established for the children of the white and colored races.

"3. Our law creates a State Board of Education, composed of the Governor, the Secretary of State, the Attorney-General, the Comptroller-General, and the State School Commissioner. This board is a body corporate and can hold property. It is an advisory body, to whom the State School Commissioner may apply for counsel when in doubt as to official duty. It is also the high court of appeals in school matters, its decision either between parties litigant, or upon questions involving the construction or administration of the school law, being final.

"4. We also have a State School Commissioner, who is appointed by the Governor and confirmed by the Senate. He is required to prescribe all the forms used by the subordinate school officers, to visit the counties as often as practicable, for the purpose of inspecting school operations and delivering public addresses, to collect school statistics, to make a full report of school operations to the General Assembly, making, at the same time, such recommendations to them in reference to the school policy of the State as his judgment may approve, and to see to the proper administration of the school law throughout the State. He is also a judge, and sits as such to hear and determine appeals from the decision of County Boards on suits in controversy before them. From his decision, as has been stated, there is an appeal to the State Board.

¹ Art. VIII, sec. 1, par. 1. (Code of Georgia, 1882, p. 1321.)

"5. The law also provides for a County Board of Education, consisting of five members chosen by the Grand Jury. The term of office is four years; but the terms of the members are so arranged that there is a change in the constituents of the board every two years, three new members coming in at the time of one change, and two at the time of the next. It is the duty of this board to locate schools, to employ teachers, to pass upon all accounts, and to direct all the school operations of the county. The board also sits as a court for trying all matters of school controversy. No man is eligible to membership on this board unless he is a freeholder.

"6. The County School Commissioner is the executive officer of the County Board, and is elected by that board. He examines teachers, executes the contract which the board makes with them, visits and inspects schools, collects school statistics, and is the custodian of the school fund, receiving and paying out, when ordered by the board, all funds raised for school purposes.

"7. The Board of Education also appoints three school trustees for each school district of the county. The principal duty of these trustees is to recommend teachers for the different schools of their district. They are required to recommend, as teacher for each school, the person whom they believe to be the choice of the community, and the board is bound to employ this person, if he can stand a satisfactory examination and produce evidence of good moral character.

"8. The Grand Jury also perform certain educational functions. They are themselves chosen under the Constitution from among 'the most experienced, intelligent, upright men of the county.' As has been seen, they elect the members of the County Board of Education. The County School Commissioner is required to make a full report to them, once a year, of the school operations of the county, and to place his books before them for examination; and they are required, in their general presentments, to take such notice of the management of the school interests of the county as they may think proper."

In conclusion may be quoted a statement made by Doctor Orr in the same address,¹ relative to the high repute in which the Georgia public school system is held, and the distinguished place which, by virtue of its excellence and efficiency, it occupies among kindred existing systems of other States. "A few years ago," he says, "I had the honor of being placed by the National Educational Association upon a committee charged with the duty of reporting upon the best school system for a State. The chairman of the committee was the Hon. James H. Smart, who has been trusted by the State of Indiana, having held and filled with credit the highest educational positions in the gift of that State. The other member of the committee was the Hon. J. P. Wick-ersham, for sixteen years Superintendent of Public Instruction for the State of Pennsylvania, a man who ranks, and deservedly ranks, second

¹ The Best School System for a Southern State, p. 11.

to no one among the educational thinkers and organizers of this continent. After twelve months' study of the systems of all the States, the ideal system, the system considered as the best and which was submitted as the best to the Association, followed very closely in its leading provisions the school law of Georgia; and both these distinguished gentlemen afterward, in public addresses delivered in my State,¹ declared the Georgia system to be the very best, with one or two exceptions, in the United States."

¹ This was spoken before the Florida Chautauqua.

CHAPTER IV.

THE UNIVERSITY OF GEORGIA.¹

EARLY PLANS AND LEGISLATION:

This first of the institutions of higher education established within the limits of the State of Georgia, an institution which has nearly com-

¹ *A History of Georgia, from its First Discovery by Europeans to the Adoption of the Present Constitution in MDCCXCVIII*, by Rev. William Bacon Stevens, M. D., D. D. 2 vols. Philadelphia, 1839. Vol. II, pp. 344, 353-5, 360-4.

George R. Gilmer's *Georgians*. New York: D. Appleton & Co., 1855. Pp. 239, 240.

Lippincott's *Cabinet Histories: Georgia*. Philadelphia, 1854. Pp. 94, 273-4.

Digest of all the Laws and Resolutions now in Force in the State of Georgia on the Subject of Public Education and Free Schools, by John A. Cuthbert. Milledgeville, 1832. Pp. 179-80.

D. W. Lewis's *Report on Public Education*. Milledgeville, Ga., 1860. Pp. 42, 113-14, 119, 124-5.

The Commonwealth of Georgia. The Country; the People; the Productions. By J. T. Henderson. Atlanta, Ga., 1885. Pp. 263-8.

Donation of Fifty Thousand Dollars by Gov. Joseph E. Brown to the State University, the Correspondence on the Subject, and Action of the Board of Trustees Accepting the Donation. Atlanta, Ga., 1883. Pp. 35.

Evans's *History of Georgia*. Macon, 1884. Pp. 124-5.

Address delivered before the Alumni Society of the University of Georgia at the Annual Commencement July 14, 1885, by Charles Z. McCord. Pp. 27.

Centennial Catalogue of the Trustees, Officers, and "Alumni of the University of Georgia from 1785 to 1885." Athens, Ga., 1885. Pp. 85.

Code of Georgia, 1882. Pp. 253-6.

Chancellor Mell's letters on the State University in September, 1887.

Address delivered February 3, 1875, before the General Assembly of the State of Georgia, on the Condition, Interests, and Wants of the University of Georgia, by Henry H. Tucker, Chancellor of the University. Atlanta, Ga., 1875. Pp. 37.

White's *Statistics of Georgia*. Savannah, 1849. Pp. 69, 72-6.

T. P. Jones's *Hand-Book of Georgia*. Atlanta, Ga., 1876. Pp. 182-5.

Chancellor's Report to the Governor, 1873. Savannah, 1874. Pp. 11.

A Gazetteer of the State of Georgia, etc., by Adiel Sherwood. 3d ed. Washington City, 1837. Pp. 115-22.

Stephenson's *Geology, etc., of Georgia*. Atlanta, Ga., 1871. Pp. 167-9.

Georgia, etc., by J. T. Derry. Philadelphia, 1878. Page 106.

Kiddle and Schem's Cyclopaedia of Education, etc. New York and London, 1877. Page 349.

A Code of Laws for the Government of Franklin College, University of Georgia:



UNIVERSITY OF GEORGIA.

pleted the one hundred and third year of its chartered existence and the eighty-seventh year of its active operations, properly introduces the subject of higher education. The earliest date associated with it is 1784. On February 25th of that year the Legislature of Georgia passed an act laying out what were then called the counties of Franklin and Washington,¹ a territory which now embraces more than a dozen counties as at present constituted. The eleventh section of that act conveyed forty thousand acres of those lands, then wild, to the Governor for the time being, and certain other persons named, in trust for the endowment of a college or seminary of learning, there being at that time no such institution in existence.² The recital that "whereas, the encouragement of religion and learning is an object of great importance to any community, and must tend to the prosperity, happiness, and advantage of the same,"³ was accompanied with directions to the county surveyors to "lay out in each county twenty thousand acres of land of the first quality, in separate tracts of five thousand acres each." These lands were severally vested in and granted to the Governor, and John Houstoun, James Habersham, William Few, Joseph Clay, Abraham

made, enacted, and ordained by the *Senatus Academicus*, at their session in Milledgeville, in November, 1834. Athens, Ga., 1835. Pp. 43.

Catalogue of the Officers and Students of Franklin College, University of Georgia. 1842. Athens, April, 1842. Pp. 12.

Catalogus Curatorum, et eorum qui Munera et Officia gesserunt, quique aliquo Gradu exornati fuerunt in Collegio Frankliniensi, Athenis, in Republica Georgia. Athenis: MDCCCLVIII. Pp. 31.

A Gazetteer of the State of Georgia, by Adiel Sherwood. 2d ed. Philadelphia, 1829. Pp. 54-67, containing a full account of the history of Franklin College prior to that time, and constituting one of our principal sources up to that period.

Present Organization and Proposed Plan of Expansion of the University of Georgia. Athens, 1872. Pp. 16.

A Plea for the Unification of the University of Georgia and the Denominational Colleges, etc., by Rev. J. O. A. Clark, D.D. Macon, Ga., 1874. Pp. 42.

White's Historical Collections of Georgia. New York, 1854. Pp. 223-4, 394-5, 397-8.

Statements and Discussions Elicited by Attacks and Criticisms on the University of Georgia, by Chancellor Mell. Athens, Ga., 1887. Pp. 21.

¹ See an act for laying out two or more counties to the westward, and pointing out the mode of granting the same. (Watkins's Digest, pp. 290-5.)

² When, on July 8, 1783, the Legislature of Georgia assembled at Augusta, the Governor, Hon. Lyman Hall, in his message on that occasion, said:

"In addition, therefore, to wholesome laws restraining vice, every encouragement ought to be given to introduce religion and learned clergy to perform divine worship in honor of God, and to cultivate principles of religion and virtue among our citizens. For this purpose, it will be your wisdom to lay an early foundation for endowing seminaries of learning; nor can you, I conceive, lay a better than by a grant of a sufficient tract of land that may, as in other governments, hereafter, by lease or otherwise, raise a revenue sufficient to support such valuable institutions."

This idea or suggestion of granting land to endow "such valuable institutions" is interesting, not only for the reason that it was the foundation stone in the history of the University of Georgia, but also because it is the earliest recorded opinion on the subject of education in Georgia after the close of the Revolutionary War.

³ Section XII of act.

Baldwin, William Houstoun, and Nathan Brownson, who were appointed the trustees of the institution to be erected.

In the passage of this act, Abraham Baldwin, a graduate of Yale, and one of the best scholars of his time, was chiefly instrumental. Though he had recently come to Georgia, Mr. Baldwin's popularity was already so great as to secure for him a seat in the General Assembly. During the session he originated the plan of the University of Georgia, and obtained from the Legislature the grant of land, as above stated, for its endowment.

BILL FOR THE ESTABLISHMENT OF THE UNIVERSITY OF GEORGIA.

The Assembly, by an act passed on the 27th of January, 1785,¹ developed almost into maturity the germ of a University found in their legislation the previous year. Under this act a charter was granted to the persons above mentioned, and to certain others named in addition,² as trustees of an institution to be established and to be called the "University of Georgia." The bill was entitled, "An act for the more full and complete establishment of a public seat of learning in this State," and opens with a preamble which, in the language of Dr. Alonzo Church, "would do honor to any Legislature, and will stand a monument to the wisdom and patriotism of those who framed and of those who adopted it."³ This preamble reads as follows:

"As it is the distinguishing happiness of free governments that civil order should be the result of choice, and not necessity, and the common wishes of the people become the laws of the land, their public prosperity and even existence very much depends upon suitably forming the minds and morals of their citizens. When the minds of the people in general are viciously disposed and unprincipled, and their conduct disorderly, a free government will be attended with greater confusions and evils more horrid than the wild uncultivated state of nature. It can only be happy where the public principles and opinions are properly directed and their manners regulated. This is an influence beyond the reach of laws and punishments, and can be claimed only by religion and education. It should, therefore, be among the first objects of those who wish well to the national prosperity, to encourage and support the principles of religion and morality, and early to place the youth under the forming hand of society, that by instruction they may be moulded to the love of virtue and good order. Sending them abroad to other countries for their education will not answer these purposes, is too humiliating an acknowledgment of the ignorance or inferiority of

¹ Marbury and Crawford's Digest, pp. 560-2.

² Viz, John Habersham, Abiel Holmes, Jenkin Davis, Hugh Lawson, William Glascock, and Benjamin Taliaferro.

³ Address before the Georgia Historical Society, February 12, 1845. (White's Statistics of Georgia, p. 69.)

our own, and will always be the cause of so great foreign attachments, that upon principles of policy it is inadmissible.

"This country, in the times of our common danger and distress, found security in the principles and abilities which wise regulations had before established in the minds of our countrymen; that our present happiness, joined to the pleasing prospects, should conspire to make us feel ourselves under the strongest obligations to form the youth, the rising hope of our land, to render the like glorious and essential services to our country."

The act provided that the general superintendence and regulation of the literature of this State should be confided to two bodies, one consisting of the Governor and Council, the Speaker of the House of Assembly, and the Chief Justice, termed a "Board of Visitors;" and the other, consisting, as we have seen, of thirteen persons, to be called the "Board of Trustees." These two bodies, united, were to constitute the "Senatus Academicus of the University of Georgia."¹ This "Senatus Academicus" was to "consult and advise, not only upon the affairs of the University, but also to remedy the defects and advance the interests of literature through the State in general."

The fourteenth section of this bill also declared that "all public schools instituted, or to be supported by funds or public moneys in this State, shall be considered as parts or members of the University, and shall be under the foregoing directions and regulations;" while by the ninth all the officers of the University were required to be "of the Christian religion," and to "publicly take the oath of allegiance and fidelity."

LIBERAL SPIRIT OF THE CHARTER.

That which is most striking in the charter of the University of Georgia, and which best indicates the catholic spirit in which it was conceived and drawn, is found in the eleventh section, wherein the trustees are forbidden to "exclude any person, of any religious denomination whatsoever, from free and equal liberty and advantages of education,

¹ The union and joint operation of these boards no longer exist (for abolition of the *Senatus Academicus*, see Act of December 14, 1859, Laws of 1859, pp. 26-7). The board of trustees, which originally consisted of thirteen members, has since been increased to thirty-six, and exercises an independent and unassisted control over the affairs and interests of the University. The Board of Visitors, as now known, is composed of five citizens annually appointed by the Governor, whose business it is "to attend the examinations at the University of Georgia, preceding the annual commencement, and to examine personally into the condition and management of the institution;" they receiving as a compensation for their services (which must not exceed ten days) four dollars a day, estimating from the date of leaving home. (Act of October 13, 1887, Laws of 1887, p. 67.)

Five new members have been added to this board through the establishment of the Georgia School of Technology at Atlanta, the commissioners appointed for the erection, equipment, and organization of that institution being regarded as *ex-officio* trustees of the University.

or from any of the liberties, privileges, and immunities of the University in his education, on account of his or their speculative sentiments in religion, or being of a different religious profession." Truly has it been said of this institution: "It was the creation of no one man or set of men; it was the gift of no political party; it was the offspring of no religious or denominational sect; it drew its life and being from the State by whom it was created. It was of the people, by the people, and for the people."¹

After the act of 1785, under which the University of Georgia received its charter and its trustees were appointed, nothing more was done in its behalf for many years. Until the Constitution of 1798 ordained that the next Legislature should take effectual measures for the University, it had no funds or donations except the forty thousand acres of wild land at first appropriated. These lands lay on the north-western frontier, and were open to the danger of Indian hostilities.² This circumstance, in connection with the fact of their exceeding cheapness,³ and the difficulty of securing purchasers, rendered them almost entirely unproductive of income. The lands, therefore, of the University could not be made available for any valuable purpose, and the trustees were unable to give vitality to the institution. By the treaty of Beaufort,⁴ April 28, 1787, about five thousand acres of the land granted to the University had been ceded to South Carolina, which reduced the amount to thirty-five thousand acres; and even this amount was further curtailed by the fact that some of the University lands overlapped lands previously granted to other parties.⁵

¹ See McCord's Speech, pp. 5-6.

² "The country was perfectly wild," writes Chancellor Tucker, "and mostly uninhabited, except by Indians. Even in those portions of the State which were most thickly settled, and had been longest inhabited by white people, so savage was the condition that it was found necessary to provide, by the act of March 3, 1784, 'that a guard, consisting of an officer and from six to twelve horsemen, be furnished to the commanding officer of each county; that is to say, the guard of Chatham County, to escort the President and Council to the lower line of Effingham County; that the guard of Effingham County be ready there to escort them to the lower line of Burke County; and that the guard of Burke County be ready there to escort them to the lower line of Richmond County; and that the guard of Richmond County be ready there, to escort them to Augusta.'" (Tucker's Address on the Condition, Interests, and Wants of the University of Georgia, pp. 13-14.)

³ "Probably the whole forty thousand acres could not have been sold for one thousand dollars. * * * As an evidence of the low value set on these lands, it is worthy of notice, that the State offered to give five hundred acres of it to any man, and any kind of man, who would set up a saw mill on any portion of it—he to take his choice; and on the same conditions, two thousand acres to any one who would set up a forge." (Watkins, 205.) "To each head of a family who would settle on it, the State offered to give two hundred acres, with fifty acres additional for every member of his family, whether old or young, white or black." (*Ibid.*, 234, 309, etc.) "If the sale of the forty thousand acres had been forced, it may well be doubted whether it would have brought three cents an acre." (Tucker's Address, pp. 13-15.)

⁴ Watkins's Digest, p. 752; and Marbury and Crawford, pp. 337, 662.

⁵ Tucker's Address, p. 16.

FIRST MEETING OF THE ACADEMIC SENATE.

The first meeting of the *Senatus Academicus* of the State, of which any record remains, was held at Louisville, in Jefferson County, in November, 1799. The original intention¹ of the Legislature seems to have been to cause buildings for the University to be erected in that town, but the donation of Governor John Milledge² changed the plan. In 1801 he gave to the trustees, for the benefit of the University, about six hundred and thirty acres of land, on a part of which the University buildings are situated, and the rest of which is now occupied by the city of Athens.

Soon afterward the institution went into operation. We have the following account of this event from the pen of Governor Wilson Lumpkin:³

"In 1801," he says, in a letter dated November 1, 1855, "the trustees determined to put a college into operation. By the patriotic donation of Governor Milledge, they had plenty of ground and a most eligible site to build upon; but they had no houses or money in hand to build them,⁴ or even funds to pay a president of a college an adequate salary, or aid him by a faculty of any sort.

JOSIAH MEIGS THE FIRST PRESIDENT OF FRANKLIN COLLEGE.

"Yet that most excellent man, with all his attainments, Josiah Meigs,⁵ LL. D., was induced to accept the presidency, of what has been called Franklin College ever since the year 1801, with a limited and precarious salary, and if I am to rely upon record, without the aid of a professor or even a tutor,⁶ and he continued in that office until 1811, his first classes reciting under the shades of a large oak, for the want of a better

¹ See Watkins's Digest, p. 320, Act of January 26, 1786. The expediency of establishing the University at Greensborough was also at one time considered, the Legislature having, by an act for laying out Greene County within the limits of Franklin County, and including a portion of the University land, approved February 3, 1786 (Watkins, pp. 322-3), authorized the trustees to lay out that town, sell the lots, and apply the proceeds to the benefit of the University. This project, however, did not meet with general favor. Efforts were also made to locate the institution in Hancock, Columbia, and Wilkes Counties.

² It is due to the memory of Mr. Milledge to say that he was one of the first with whom the idea of establishing our State University originated. He cordially united with the most eminent men in Georgia to carry out that important measure.

³ Lewis's Report, pp. 124-5.

⁴ When Franklin College was opened, we are told (Evans's History of Georgia, p. 124) that no suitable building had as yet been erected; and there were but two houses in Athens at that time. According to Chancellor Tucker's account, the only college edifice was a frame building of only one room. (Tucker's Address, p. 23.)

⁵ He was a professor of natural philosophy and astronomy in Yale College, and was elected by the "*Senatus Academicus*" in 1800, at a salary of fifteen hundred dollars. (Stevens's History of Georgia, Vol. II, p. 362.)

⁶ The truth was that he had the assistance of one professor for the first five years of his service, and of one tutor during the last five years. (Lewis's Report, p. 125.)

shelter. Yet in the ten years of Mr. Meigs's presidency, upward of fifty students were graduated and received their regular degree of A. B."

The first commencement of Franklin College was held in May, 1804, the exercises being conducted under an arbor formed of branches of trees, upon the campus. "Here, in this rustic chapel, surrounded by the primeval forest, and amidst a gathering of a few friends of the institution, and a still larger number of persons assembled to witness the novel scene, Col. Gibson Clark, the Hon. Augustin S. Clayton, General Jephtha V. Harris, Col. William H. Jackson, Prof. James Jackson, Thomas Irwin, Jared Irwin, Robert Rutherford, Williams Rutherford, and William Williamson graduated with the honors of the institution."¹

Upon the close of President Meigs's term of service the exercises of the college were, through lack of funds, suspended for a year. In 1812 the Rev. John Brown, D. D., was called to the vacant chair, where he remained until 1816, when he resigned. During his administration upward of twenty students received diplomas.² There were no classes in 1813, in consequence of the war with Great Britain.

At first the college had looked for its partial support to the rent accruing from the lands given by the State. In that early day English ideas were largely prevalent, and it was thought that a long rent-roll was the best of all endowments. Experience soon proved that in this new country the renting of lands was not profitable. Some of the lands were accordingly sold,³ and the college was sustained from the proceeds of such sales. It was soon discovered, however, that this plan was unwise, and afterward the lands were all sold, payment being made in the notes of the purchasers, bearing interest and secured by mortgage.⁴ By the act of December 16, 1815, the State authorized the Governor to advance to the trustees any amount of money not exceeding two-thirds of the sum called for by these notes,⁵ and to receive the notes in lieu of the same. One hundred thousand dollars was the sum agreed upon,

¹ Stevens's History of Georgia, Vol. II, p. 364.

² Lewis's Report, p. 125.

³ "None of the lands were sold until 1803, and then only a small portion, and at a low price." (White's Statistics of Georgia, p. 73.)

⁴ Section III of the act of December 16, 1815 (Prince's Digest, pp. 870-1), declares that "if the said trustees should dispose of the lands aforesaid upon a credit, the bonds given by the purchasers for the same shall be secured by good personal security, together with a mortgage upon the land so purchased; and the said bonds and mortgages, when collected, shall be applied by the said trustees to the subscription for stock in any banks now in this State, in case further subscriptions should be by them opened, or any bank which may hereafter be established by the State or the United States."

⁵ Under the provisions of this act the University lands were sold, and, as nearly as has been ascertained, the aggregate amount of the sales was about one hundred and fifty thousand dollars, one hundred thousand of which, under the direction of the Legislature, were converted into bank stock, and the balance, it is supposed, was applied to the purpose of reimbursing the State for advances made to the University from time to time. (Lewis's Report, p. 119.)

but as the money was not paid, this amount was regarded as a debt due to the University by the State, and it was agreed that interest should be paid upon the same at the rate of eight per cent. per annum. In compliance with this arrangement, the sum of eight thousand dollars has been regularly and annually paid by the State to the University to the present day. The act establishing this permanent University fund was not passed until December 21, 1821.¹ "Finally," says Governor Lumpkin, in a letter dated November, 1855,² "what has been called the permanent endowment of the University was made by the act of the Legislature of 1821, by which the State took into its own keeping the one hundred thousand dollars of bank stock owned by the University, and secured to the University the payment of eight per cent. per annum on one hundred thousand dollars; since which date the limited financial condition of the institution has been free from any serious embarrassment."

Dr. John Brown was succeeded in the presidency of the college by Robert Finley, D. D., of Baskingridge, N. J., whose term was brief. It was terminated by his death in 1817. Then ensued an interregnum, occasioned chiefly through the inability of the Board of Trustees to organize the faculty in a satisfactory manner. This lasted until 1819, when the Rev. Dr. Moses Waddell was elected president. Franklin College was then in a very unfortunate plight. "When he took charge of it," writes Governor Gilmer,³ "there were neither funds, professors, nor students." Doctor Waddell was an admirable disciplinarian and organizer.⁴ Under his management the institution was established upon a firmer and better basis than at any former time. The attendance of students increased, and the Board secured the services of a respectable number of professors and enlarged the library⁵ and apparatus.⁶ His term expired in 1829, when the Rev. Alonzo Church, D. D., of Brattleborough, Vt., was called to the chair. The latter had for some years been filling the professorship of mathematics and astronomy in the institution.

¹ Prince's Digest, pp. 873-4. The act was entitled "An Act to provide for the permanent endowment of the University, and to appropriate moneys for the erection of a new collegiate edifice at Athens."

² Lewis's Report, p. 119; see also pp. 113-4 of the report.

³ "Georgians," p. 239.

⁴ Doctor Waddell had taught a large academy in Abbeville (S. C.) with remarkable success, for a number of years. Under his tuition some of the most distinguished men in Georgia and South Carolina received, in whole or in part, their education. From long and successful experience he had acquired a reputation for the government and instruction of youths which amply qualified him to give character and reputation to the college, as subsequent events abundantly proved. (*Georgia Gazetteer*, 1837, p. 119. See also Ramsay's *History of South Carolina*, Vol. II, pp. 369-71.)

⁵ This was originally due to an act approved November 23, 1806 (*Clayton's Digest*, p. 308), by which the trustees had been allowed to establish a lottery for the purpose of raising three thousand dollars to purchase a library for the use of the University.

⁶ *White's Statistics of Georgia*, p. 73.

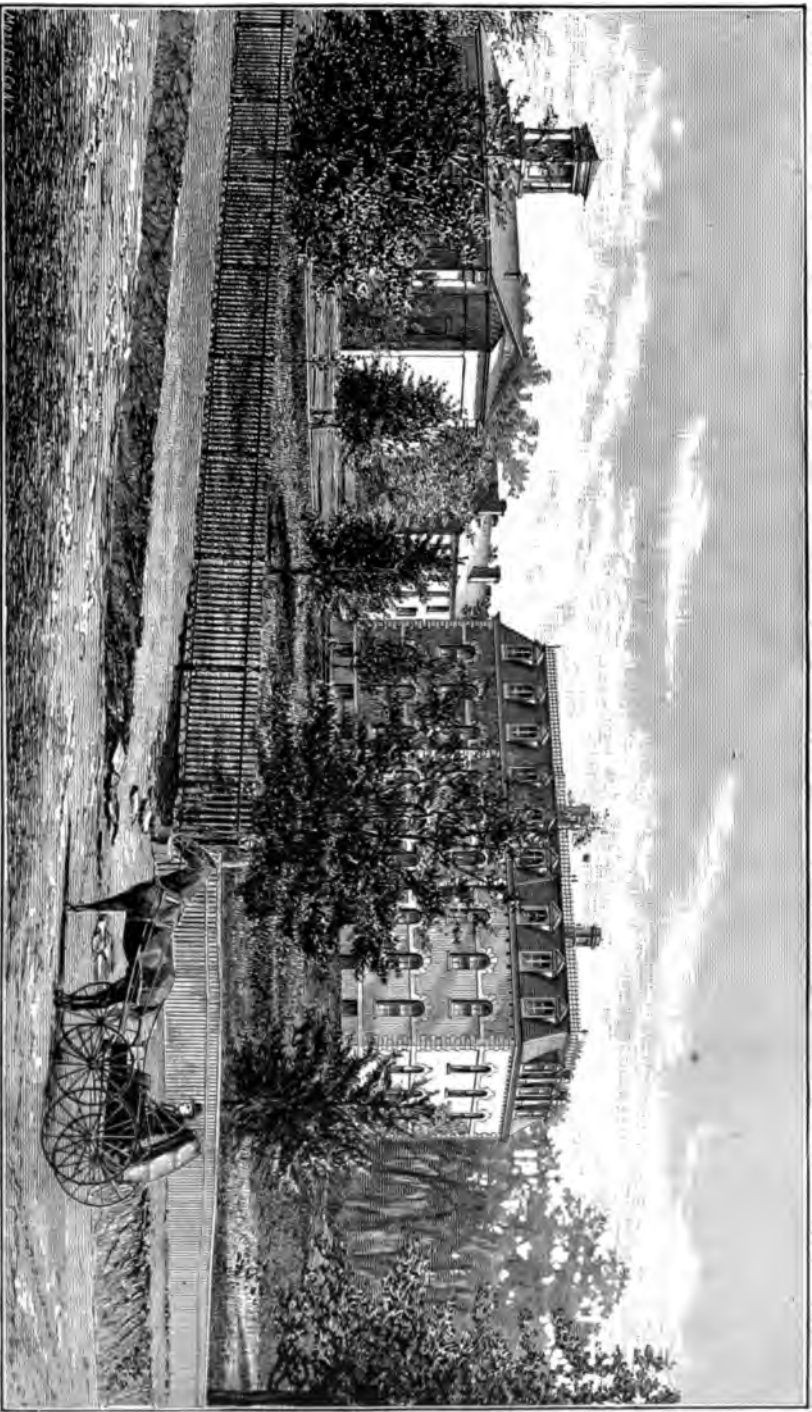
as the "Moore College." This structure was completed in the following year, and is by far the handsomest building on the campus. It is three stories high, exclusive of the mansard roof. The entire first floor and basement are appropriated to the use of the chemical department, and contain, among other things, analytical laboratories, an assay-room, a room for microscopic and spectroscopic work, and an industrial museum. The second floor is devoted to the department of natural philosophy, and the third to that of engineering. Moore College is the seat of the "Georgia State College of Agriculture and the Mechanic Arts."

THE CHARLES McDONALD BROWN SCHOLARSHIP FUND.

The most recent and noteworthy donation to the University was made by Senator Joseph E. Brown, ex-Governor of Georgia, in 1881, and is known as the Charles McDonald Brown Scholarship Fund. This fund, consisting of fifty thousand dollars, bears the name of one of Senator Brown's sons, who died while prosecuting his studies at the University, and by whom, had he lived, this sum might have been possessed. The income arising from this fund is intended to "aid worthy young men of the State in their efforts to get an education," and four students are, each year, enabled to avail themselves of the assistance thus afforded. An applicant for benefits under this fund must be "eighteen years old, of good moral character, apt to learn, of reasonable health and proper ambition," and "he must be prepared at least for the Freshman class." Money is loaned out only to those who, unaided, would not be able to acquire a university education, on the condition that they refund the money thus loaned, as soon as they can make it, after providing for their livelihood in an economical manner; and the amount which is repaid by each student, with interest at four per cent., in return for the money he has received, is added annually to the principal of the endowment. Young men pursuing their studies for the purpose of preparing themselves for the ministry, or who, after completing their studies, may devote themselves to the work of the ministry, are required to return with interest only one-half the amount loaned to them. The colleges participating in the benefits of this fund are those at Athens and Dahlonega, and the Medical School at Augusta.

Doctor Church's administration closed in 1859. He had served the University in the capacity of president for thirty years. About the same time the *Senatus Academicus* of the State of Georgia was abolished, and all its rights, powers, duties, and privileges were given to the Board of Trustees of the University of Georgia, in whom was vested the sole government of that institution, subject to the direction of the General Assembly of the State.¹ In 1860 the title of president was changed to that of chancellor, Rev. Andrew A. Lipscomb, D. D.,

¹ See Act of December 14, 1859. (Laws of 1859, pp. 26-7.)



MOORE COLLEGE.

LL. D., being the first incumbent.¹ He remained at the head of the University until 1874,² when he was succeeded by the Rev. H. H. Tucker, D. D., LL. D.

By an act of the Congress of the United States, approved July 2, 1862, there was given to each of the States, for educational purposes, an amount of land equal in quantity to thirty thousand acres for each Senator and Representative to which the State was entitled under the apportionment of 1860. The State of Georgia, by the act of March 10, 1866, accepted this grant of land on the conditions specified in the grant, and by the act of December 12, 1866, the Governor was empowered to receive and sell the scrip representing the said land, and to invest the proceeds for the purposes mentioned in the grant. The amount realized from the sale of this scrip was \$242,202.³ On the 30th of March, 1872, His Excellency James M. Smith, Governor of Georgia, transferred the fund thus obtained to the trustees of the University of Georgia, and on the 1st day of May, 1872, the trustees opened and established the "Georgia State College of Agriculture and the Mechanic Arts." This institution was a distinct organization, complete in all its parts, but still constituting an integral school of the University of Georgia, controlled by the trustees of the latter, and presided over by the chancellor *ex officio*. There are thus two colleges in one. The students of both are taught by the professors of each, in the same lecture and recitation rooms, largely from the same text-books, and frequently in the same classes. The combination has proved harmonious and advantageous.

THE ELECTIVE SYSTEM ESTABLISHED.

In 1869 what is known as the "Old College curriculum" was for the most part displaced by giving the students, on certain conditions, an elective course of study, and by establishing various other degrees in addition to those formerly conferred. "Retaining the undergraduate course and adding to the old-time A. B. curriculum other curricula, so as to give undergraduates the option of modern languages and of a

¹ In a report of the trustees of the University of Georgia to the Governor (Joseph E. Brown), dated October 2, 1860, appears the following: "At the meeting of the Board of Trustees of the University of Georgia, which lasted from July 27 to August 3, 1860, inclusive, the offices of chancellor and vice-chancellor were created, Rev. Andrew A. Lipscomb, D. D., being called to fill the first place, and Rev. P. H. Mell, D. D., professor of moral and mental philosophy, being elected to the second. The Faculty, as at that time organized, consisted, in addition to the above-named officers, of William S. Rutherford, Jr., A. M., professor of mathematics and astronomy; William H. Waddell, A. M., professor of ancient languages; Richard M. Johnston, A. M., professor of oratory and belles-lettres; James Woodrow, Ph. D., professor of natural philosophy, chemistry, and natural sciences; William D. Wash, A. M., adjunct professor of mathematics and natural philosophy; and Dr. Daniel Leo Terrell, professor of agriculture." (Quoted in Lewis's Report on Public Education, p. 42.)

² There was a suspension of college exercises from September 1, 1863, to January 1, 1866.

³ Pamphlet Laws of 1872; McCord's Address, 1885, p. 15.

greater degree of philosophy and science than was admissible in the chiefly disciplinary A. B. course," writes the late Chancellor Mell,¹ "it [the University] added schools in which young men might prepare themselves as civil and mining engineers, as chemists, as physicists, and as scientific farmers." Since about 1870 the new system of instruction, which is termed the University system, has been in force; and there are now, besides the A. B. course, bachelor of philosophy, of science, of chemical science, of agriculture, and of engineering, and master of arts courses, all of which end in degrees.

The year 1873 is remembered as that in which the University entered into arrangements with the Medical College at Augusta, in pursuance of which the latter became one of its departments. With this event we have no present concern, as the Medical College will be considered at length elsewhere.

NORTH GEORGIA AGRICULTURAL COLLEGE AT DAHLONEGA.

We therefore turn our attention to the North Georgia Agricultural College at Dahlonega (Lumpkin County), which was opened in January, 1873. The school owed its origin to the act of Congress of July 2, 1862, entitled "An Act donating public lands to the several States and Territories which may provide colleges for the benefit of agriculture and the mechanic arts." The act contemplated the "endowment, support, and maintenance of at least one college where the leading object shall be, without excluding other scientific and classical studies, and including military tactics, to teach such branches of learning as are related to agriculture and the mechanic arts, in such manner as the Legislatures of the States may respectively prescribe, in order to promote the liberal and practical education of the industrial classes."

By an act of March 10, 1866, as has been observed, the General Assembly of Georgia accepted the donation "upon the terms and conditions prescribed" in the act of Congress; and, upon the receipt of the fund, the interest of it, amounting to about seventeen thousand dollars, was placed under the control of the trustees of the University, to carry into effect the objects of the act. The North Georgia Agricultural College, having been incorporated in 1871, received from the United States Government, in pursuance of an act of Congress in that year, a donation of the building at Dahlonega previously known as the United States Branch Mint, with ten acres of land connected therewith. A contract was then made with the trustees of the University, by which the North Georgia Agricultural College became a branch and part of the University, the title to the above-mentioned property being conveyed to the trustees of that institution, on the conditions specified in the donation; they appointing the president of the college, making a certain allowance for its support, and exercising over it a general

¹ Statements and Discussions, etc., by Chancellor Mell, p. 16.

supervision. The charter of the college authorizes it to confer degrees, viz, the A. B. and B. S. degrees. The degree usually conferred, however, is that of A. B.; the design being to make the curriculum as nearly as possible the same as that prescribed in the bachelor of arts course at Athens.

The privileges of this school are enjoyed by both sexes. It is a common thing for the A. B. degree to be conferred upon females at Dahlonga.

Military tactics form an important feature in the college course. The instruction in this department is both theoretical and practical—the former, by a study of the tactics prescribed in the United States Army; the latter, through actual drills in artillery and infantry tactics, and in other military exercises.

This college is a participant in the benefits of the Charles McDonald Brown Scholarship Fund, from which it receives one thousand dollars annually.¹

Hon. David W. Lewis was the first president of Dahlonga, and the students in attendance during its first session numbered one hundred and seventy-seven.

BRANCH COLLEGES AT THOMASVILLE, CUTHBERT, AND MILLEDGEVILLE.

In addition to the college at Dahlonga, three other "Branch Colleges" of the University have been established, viz: the South Georgia College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts, which was opened at Thomasville, Thomas County, in September, 1879; the South-West Georgia Agricultural College, located at Cuthbert, Randolph County, and opened during the same month;² and the Middle Georgia Military and Agricultural College, at Milledgeville, Baldwin County, which commenced operations in January, 1880.³ In reference to the school at Cuthbert, it is proper to state that it is no longer a branch of the University. It ceased to be regarded as such in 1885, when its directors failed to comply with their contract with the trustees.⁴ Prior to this event about seven thousand dollars of the interest of the land scrip fund had been annually distributed among the branch colleges.⁵

¹ See "Donation of Fifty Thousand Dollars by Governor Jos. E. Brown to the State University, the Correspondence on the Subject, and Action of the Board of Trustees accepting the Donation," p. 9.

² See act authorizing the establishment of branches of the State University at Cuthbert and Thomasville, approved December 16, 1878. (*Laws of 1878-79*, pp. 97-98.)

³ See act of incorporation, approved October 14, 1879. (*Ibid.*, pp. 91, 92.)

⁴ Since writing the above, another (1888-89) session of the Legislature has convened, one of the first acts of which was the reception of Cuthbert back into the University system. An appropriation has likewise been made of three thousand dollars to Dahlonga, and two thousand dollars each to the other three branch colleges.

⁵ Two thousand dollars had gone to the school at Dahlonga, fifteen hundred to the one at Milledgeville, and about twelve hundred dollars to the schools at Thomasville and Cuthbert, respectively.

Like the North Georgia Agricultural College, the schools at Thomasville and Milledgeville are mixed schools, and in them members of both sexes are taught. In them, too, military exercises form a part of the instruction. But, unlike Dahlonega, they are considered as merely preparatory schools for the University, their collegiate capacity being limited to the Freshman and Sophomore years, after which students are expected to repair to the parent and central institution, and there complete their course. The old State Capitol buildings, which were granted to the trustees of the University of Georgia for the purpose of establishing a branch college at Milledgeville, are at present occupied by the college, and are said to furnish ample accommodations for the students.

Doctor Lipscomb's term of office expiring in 1874, Rev. Henry H. Tucker, D. D., LL. D., who had previously¹ been the president of Mercer University, succeeded to the chancellorship of the University. He occupied this position till 1878, when the late lamented Rev. P. H. Mell, D. D., LL. D., was elected. For almost a decade did this worthy chancellor preside over the affairs of the University. Only a few months² ago was he called away from a life of energetic usefulness and unswerving devotion to the charges committed to his keeping.

Under the University system there are, in addition to the three branch colleges and the Medical Department at Augusta, already alluded to, the Franklin and State Colleges and a Law Department at Athens.

FRANKLIN COLLEGE.

In Franklin College four courses of study are open to the student: the classical or bachelor of arts course; the literary or bachelor of philosophy course, which differs from the A. B. course in so far as it allows the substitution of French and German for the Latin and Greek of the latter course; the scientific course; and the master of arts or highest and most comprehensive course in the University. There are ten Academic Schools in Franklin College: School of the Latin Language and Literature; the Greek Language and Literature; the Modern Languages; Belles-Lettres, including rhetoric, criticism, and æsthetics; Metaphysics and Ethics; Mathematics; Physics and Astronomy; Chemistry; History and Political Science; and Biology and Geology. All of these schools enter into the composition of a master of arts degree, and consequently the receipt of an A. M. diploma implies that the student has satisfactorily availed himself of all the privileges of the college. While the amount of work imposed by this course is, perhaps, greater than that experienced in the other courses of the University, the duration of it is less, the master of arts course only extending through the Junior and Senior years.

¹ From 1866 to 1871.

² His death occurred January 26, 1883.

THE STATE COLLEGE.

The State College embraces schools of Agriculture, Engineering, and Applied Chemistry. That of Agriculture is designed principally for the sons of farmers, or other young men who purpose making farming their leading occupation, and is a strictly professional school. There are four classes in this school, during the first two of which English, arithmetic, trigonometry, mensuration and surveying, and book-keeping are studied. Students of the Junior year pursue the studies of general chemistry, physics, natural history, embracing botany and zoölogy, experimental field-work at the farm,¹ and practical work in the chemical and biological laboratories; and those of the Senior class studies in industrial and agricultural chemistry, agriculture, theoretical and practical, and geology and mineralogy. Bachelor of agriculture is the degree conferred in this school. The courses in engineering and applied chemistry occupy likewise four years. The diplomas awarded in these departments are bachelor of engineering and bachelor of chemical science.

In referring to the work accomplished by the State College, the late Chancellor Mell, in a letter to Martin V. Calvin, Esq. (of Augusta), dated September 19, 1887, says: "In the State College of Agriculture here has been given the most thorough instruction in those departments of science that have most intimate relation with scientific agriculture. Scattered all over Georgia are accomplished physicists and chemists, who are competent to give scientific instruction and practical aid in such scientific analyses as farmers need, who obtained their culture in the halls of the Agricultural College here. Through the agency of this institution then, there have been given to the State not a small number of men who are thoroughly versed in all those sciences that make the important factors in scientific agriculture. Ninety-four (94) accomplished young men have graduated from the Agricultural College here during the few years of its existence,² and fifty-one undergraduates enrolled themselves on its books as matriculates last year."

THE LAW DEPARTMENT.

The Law Department of the University is the successor to the Lumpkin Law School, which was established in 1859.³ Of this the professors were Joseph H. Lumpkin,⁴ Thomas R. R. Cobb, and William Hope Hull. This school ended, *eo nomine*, with the death of Chief-Justice Lumpkin, when the present Law Department was inaugurated. Since it was or-

¹ This farm, located at what is known as "Rock College" (built in 1861), in the suburbs of Athens, consists of some sixty-five acres, fifty of which are under cultivation.

² It was established in 1872.

³ See act of December 19, 1859. (Laws of 1859, p. 84.)

⁴ It was Chief Justice Lumpkin who organized the Phi Kappa Society. (White's Historical Collections of Georgia, p. 395.)

ganized the professors of law have been William L. Mitcheil, Benjamin H. Hill, William M. Browne, Pope Barrow, George Dudley Thomas, and Andrew J. Cobb. The last two are now in office, and are assisted by Samuel C. Benedict as lecturer on medical jurisprudence.

The course of instruction in the Law Department is completed in one year, consisting of two terms, the first being devoted to the study of Blackstone's Commentaries, Broom's Commentaries on the Common Law, and the Constitutions of the United States and of the State of Georgia; and the second term to the study of the principles of pleading, evidence, equity, commercial law, and the Code of Georgia. During this second term frequent moot courts are held, in which one of the professors presides, and the students are taught the actual practice of their profession. A study of medical jurisprudence is embraced in the course; and, until his death, it was the custom of Chancellor Mell to deliver lectures to the students on parliamentary law.¹ At the end of the course students receive their diplomas, by virtue of which they are admitted without examination to practise in the superior courts of the State of Georgia, and in all other courts of the State except the Supreme Court. To this latter court the diploma admits when the good moral character² of the applicant is properly vouched for.

SCHOLARSHIPS.

The first free scholarship established at the University of Georgia appears to have been founded upon a donation of the late Robert Taylor, Esq., of the city of Athens, who bequeathed a certain amount to support a young man at college. This failed because of the fact that it was based upon property owned at the time of his death, which became valueless in consequence of the emancipation of slaves.

When the State College of Agriculture was organized, a free scholarship was awarded, for appointment, to each member of the Legislature, and a certain number were given to the city of Athens, which had donated twenty-five thousand dollars for the construction of a building.³ Writing of these scholarships in 1875, Chancellor Tucker says: "The University offers tuition free to three hundred and fifteen students. About one hundred of these free scholarships are occupied, and we now offer two hundred and fifteen more to the people of Georgia. It is but

¹ Chancellor Mell wrote in 1876 *A Manual of Parliamentary Practice*, which is the text-book used in the University. This work is held in high repute throughout the Southern States. The Chancellor was a fine presiding officer, and in that capacity performed long and valuable services.

² See Catalogue, 1886-87. The Code of Georgia, 1882, p. 255, provides that "any law student having a diploma of graduation, signed by the proper authority of the University, is entitled to plead and practise law in all the courts of law and equity of this State on the same terms of the graduates of the Lumpkin Law School."

³ Viz, Moore College.

⁴ See Doctor Tucker's Address in 1875, pp. 31-2.

fair, however, to say that two hundred and fifty free scholarships are on the bounty of the land scrip fund, which was a gift from the Congress of the United States, and only sixty-five are on the bounty of what is called Franklin College. But as matters now stand, both the Agricultural College and Franklin College are constituent parts of the University of Georgia; the students of both occupy the same buildings, are taught by the same instructors, and enjoy the same privileges." In 1877 we are told that "fifty meritorious young men of limited means," residents of Georgia, were admitted to the academic department (Franklin College) free of tuition, in return for which they were expected to teach in the State for a term of years equal to the time they had enjoyed the advantages of the University; and that needy students intending to enter the ministry also received tuition free.¹

Upon the introduction of free tuition for all departments of the University, except the Law and Medical Departments, in 1881, free scholarships of course ceased to exist. The Charles McDonald Brown Scholarship Fund, established about the same time, constitutes the only student help now afforded at the University.

THE LIBRARIES OF THE UNIVERSITY.

There are four libraries in the University: the college library, containing some thirteen thousand volumes; the Gilmer library, which is a collection of about one thousand volumes of select literature, bequeathed to the University by His Excellency the late ex-Governor George R. Gilmer;² and the Demosthenian and Phi Kappa libraries, consisting each of some three thousand volumes. In addition to the general library of the University, the Law Department has a special library containing many of the standard law books. It may not be inappropriate to mention in this connection that the branch college at Milledgeville has recently come into possession of a library of about three thousand volumes. There are also several thousand books in the library of the Medical Department at Augusta.

It is claimed that the University of Georgia has the finest physical and chemical apparatus in the South, the physical being valued at ten thousand dollars. It possesses also a large collection of mineralogical and geological specimens, and is well supplied with engineering models and machines for testing the strength of materials.

THE PROPERTY OF THE UNIVERSITY.

The property of the University, including its ten main college buildings, which cost in the aggregate one hundred and forty thousand dollars, and the apparatus, which is worth fifty thousand more, has an

¹ Kiddle and Schem's *Cyclopædia of Education*, p. 349.

² These two libraries occupy the entire second floor of what is known as the Library Building (erected in 1862).

estimated value of \$663,000.¹ Beside the campus, which consists of thirty-seven acres of land and is a part of the original gift of Governor Milledge, there is an experimental farm of sixty acres at Rock College, in the suburbs of Athens, belonging to the University.

Large numbers have graduated from the University of Georgia, and many of its alumni have been prominent, both in the State and the Federal Government.² The various chairs have been occupied by seventy-seven professors,³ and there have been forty-two tutors. The college has graduated seventy-nine classes. According to Chancellor Tucker's estimate, made in 1875,⁴ the University has given to the State one hundred ministers, twenty-six Congressmen, nine supreme court justices, fifty superior court judges, thirty presidents or professors of colleges, about two hundred legislators, four governors, and two bishops. Inclusive of its undergraduates, it has been instrumental in the education of fully six thousand persons in Georgia. During the session of 1887-88 there were in attendance upon all the departments of the University 1,177 students.

The University of Georgia is now under the efficient and energetic management of the Rev. Dr. William E. Boggs, of Memphis, Tenn. He was elected to the position of chancellor, as successor to the late Doctor Mell, in October, 1888.

GEORGIA SCHOOL OF TECHNOLOGY.

On October 13, 1885, an act⁵ to establish a technological school as a branch of the State University, to appropriate money for the same, and for other purposes, was passed by the General Assembly of Georgia. In it provision was made for the appointment of five "fit and discreet

¹ See Centennial Catalogue, etc. (published 1885).

² Among them may be mentioned Alexander H. Stephens, Howell Cobb, Benjamin H. Hill, and Herschel V. Johnson. It may also be interesting to know that Dr. Crawford W. Long, the discoverer of anæsthesia, was a graduate of this institution.

³ The faculty of instruction at Athens, including the professors of law and the lecturer on medical jurisprudence, at present consists of eleven professors.

Among the professors at different times connected with the University may be mentioned the Rev. Patrick H. Mell, D. D., LL. D., James P. Waddell, William H. Waddell, and William G. Woodfin, in the department of ancient languages; C. P. Wilcox, A. M., in that of modern languages; Charles F. McCay, A. M., LL. D., John LeConte, M. D., William L. Jones, M. D., Charles S. Venable, LL. D., L. H. Charbonnier, A. M., and Montgomery Cumming, A. M., in natural philosophy; Alonzo Church, A. M., William LeRoy Broun, A. M., LL. D., and Williams Rutherford, A. M., in mathematics; Joseph LeConte, M. D., Joseph Jones, M. D., Harry Hammond, M. D., and H. C. White, C. and M. E., in chemistry and geology; D. C. Barrow, Jr., in engineering; Joseph H. Lumpkin, LL. D., William L. Mitchell, A. M., Pope Barrow, and A. J. Cobb, in law; William M. Browne, A. M., in history and political science; and William B. Stevens, D. D., William T. Brantly, D. D., R. M. Johnston, A. M., and Charles Morris, A. M., in belles-lettres and rhetoric.

⁴ See Doctor Tucker's Address, p. 24.

⁵ Laws of 1884-85, pp. 69-72.

persons," citizens of the State, to be known as the Commission on the School of Technology, whose business it should be to procure the grounds and buildings necessary for the establishment of the institution. That school was to be located within or near the corporate limits of that city or town in the State which should offer the best inducements for such location in the opinion of the Commission. Preference was to be given to such place as should be easy of access to all the people of the State, due regard being had to the appropriateness, eligibility, and healthfulness of the surroundings. The selection, once made, was to be final. It was further enacted that when so established the school should be a part of the University of Georgia, and come under the control and management of its Board of Trustees, and the general supervision of its chancellor; that its officers should be a president, a superintendent of the manual department, a secretary and treasurer of the faculty, and such other professors, teachers, and instructors as should be necessary, in the opinion of the Board of Trustees, to carry on the school in accordance with the intention of the act; that a course of practical training in the use and manufacture of tools and machines for wood and iron working should be provided for all the students of the school; and that the curriculum should include, as near as practicable, consistent with the appropriation,¹ the branches now taught and followed in the Free Institute of Industrial Science at Worcester, Mass.²

Atlanta has been chosen as the seat of the School of Technology. It was selected both with reference to its central situation and on account of the liberal inducements offered, the city giving fifty thousand dollars in cash, and fifty thousand dollars in the shape of a twenty-five hundred dollar annuity for twenty years, while the citizens contributed twenty thousand dollars in cash, and the land for the site, which is valued at ten thousand dollars. No members of the faculty, except the president, Dr. Isaac S. Hopkins, who at present occupies a like position in Emory College, and two of the professors have been elected. There are two college buildings, which, it is hoped, will be ready for occupation by August 1st of the current year (1888).³

¹Sixty-five thousand dollars.

²This institution "was founded by John Boynton in 1865, through a conviction that it is possible advantageously to unite in a course of training thorough mental discipline and a knowledge of the application of science to some of the practical arts. It offers a good education, based on the mathematics, living languages, physical sciences, and drawing; and gives sufficient practical instruction in some branch of applied science to secure to its graduates a livelihood. It is specially designed for those who wish to become mechanics, civil engineers, chemists, or designers. Special prominence is given to the element of practice, which is required in every department. The training of students preparing for mechanical engineers occupies three and a half years; that of all others three years of forty-two weeks each." (Report of the Commissioner of Education, 1884-85, p. 135.)

³Since writing the above, a prospectus of the Georgia School of Technology has been issued, a faculty of instruction secured, and the institution regularly opened to students. The school is now (1889) in successful operation.

CHAPTER V.

DENOMINATIONAL SCHOOLS.

BAPTIST INSTITUTIONS.

MERCER UNIVERSITY.¹

If to the University of Georgia must be accorded the first place among the schools for the higher education of the youth of Georgia, the second most certainly belongs to Mercer University at Macon.

GEORGIA BAPTIST CONVENTION.

This institution is the property of the Baptists, and owed its origin to the Georgia Baptist Convention, under whose auspices it was founded. At the annual session of that body at Buckhead Church, Burke County, in the spring of 1831, the Rev. Adiel Sherwood offered a resolution, which was adopted, to establish in some central part of the State, as soon as the funds should justify it, a classical and theological school,

¹ Georgia Gazetteer, by Adiel Sherwood. 3d ed. Washington City, 1837. Pp. 324-5.
Memoirs of Elder Jesse Mercer, by C. D. Mallary. New York, 1814. Pp. 160-78.
Georgia Baptists—Historical and Biographical, by Jesse H. Campbell. Richmond, 1847. Pp. 195, 201-11.

White's Statistics of Georgia. Savannah, 1849. Pp. 76-7.

Thomas P. Jones's Hand-Book of Georgia. Atlanta, Ga., 1876. Pp. 186-7.

History of the Baptist Denomination in Georgia, etc. (Compiled for the Christian Index.) Atlanta, Ga., 1881. Pp. 113-57, 199-201, 215-17, 247-55.

The Baptist Encyclopedia, etc., by William Cathcart, D. D. Philadelphia, 1883. Pp. 782-4.

President Battle's Sketch of Mercer University (prepared for Picturesque America in 1885).

The Commonwealth of Georgia, etc., by J. T. Henderson. Atlanta, Ga., 1885. Pp. 269-70.

Catalogue and Triennial Register of Mercer University, Macon, Ga., 1885-86.

Annual Catalogues for 1886-87 and 1887-88.

Historical Record of Macon and Central Georgia, etc., by John C. Butler. Macon, Ga., 1879. Pp. 299-302.

American Baptist Register for 1852. Philadelphia, 1853. Pp. 426-8. Mercer University, by Rev. B. M. Sanders.

Catalogues for 1856-57, 1858-59, 1871-75, 1879-80.

which would "unite agricultural labor with study, and be opened for those only preparing for the ministry."¹ The idea of founding a manual labor school, where theory and practice should be taught,—a scheme much in favor with Georgia Baptists,—seems to have originated with Doctor Sherwood,² who was the first to demonstrate its feasibility in the academy established by him near Eatonton, in Putnam County, early in 1832.³ His plan, as then presented, contemplated an institution exclusively for the benefit and training of young ministers. At the next meeting of the convention, however, which was held at Powellton in 1832, the resolution was modified so as to admit "others besides students of divinity."

Lands and money having been subscribed, a site was chosen for the proposed school, seven miles north of Greensborough, in Greene County, identical with the location of the present village of Penfield, in Oglethorpe County.

REV. JESSE MERCER.

The school, called Mercer Institute, was so named in honor of the Rev. Jesse Mercer, a Baptist divine and philanthropist, well known throughout Georgia for his zeal, liberality, and piety. He was one of the earliest advocates of a thorough educational system, and of him it has been said that "he was the most influential minister of his day, and perhaps the most distinguished minister of the denomination ever reared up in the State."⁴ Deeply did Mr. Mercer appreciate the compliment thus paid him, and of this his subsequent acts gave proof. "As it was determined by his brethren that the seminary should bear his honored name, from its first establishment it engaged his unremitting solicitude. * * * Indeed the part which he took in the nurture and endowment of this institution⁵ may be considered the most important and prominent of the many and useful benevolent services of his whole life."⁶

One of the objects of the Georgia Baptist Convention,⁷ as set forth in its constitution, was "to afford an opportunity to those, who may conscientiously think it their duty, to form a fund for the education of pious young men who may be called by the spirit and their churches to the Christian ministry." From 1826 to 1832 several beneficiaries were adopted by the Convention, and no less than eight received aid from the Convention in the last-named year. In 1828, Josiah Penfield, a de-

¹ History of the Baptist Denomination, etc., p. 144.

² Mallary's Life of Mercer, p. 165.

³ Georgia Gazetteer, 1837, p. 324.

⁴ Campbell's Georgia Baptists, p. 182.

⁵ He was by far the largest contributor, as he gave during his life and by will about forty thousand dollars. (Baptist Encyclopedia, etc., p. 782.)

⁶ Mallary's Life of Mercer, p. 165.

⁷ The Convention was incorporated under the act of December 22, 1830.

vout deacon of the Savannah Baptist Church, offered to give twenty-five hundred dollars toward a fund for the education of young ministers, provided the Convention would contribute an equal amount. More than twenty-five hundred dollars were subscribed by the delegates at the Convention in Milledgeville in March, 1829. From this Penfield legacy, and from annual additions, grew the permanent fund for the education of young ministers, which at one time amounted to thirty-three thousand four hundred dollars.

CLASSICAL AND THEOLOGICAL SCHOOL ESTABLISHED.

Having an educational fund, the Convention, as before stated, resolved in 1831 to establish a classical and theological school to be connected with manual labor; and in the following year a subscription of fifteen hundred dollars was reported and a site was chosen. The executive committee who had charge of the matter from the first acted on the maxim "do not go in debt," and made the best arrangements which the means in hand would permit. The buildings were located in what is now the village of Penfield, and consisted of "two double cabins, with a garret to each, for dwelling, for dining, and for study, for both teachers and students."

THE FIRST PRINCIPAL, MR. SANDERS.

"With these limited accommodations," continues the Rev. B. M. Sanders, the first and only principal of Mercer Institute, "I opened the institution in January, 1833, with thirty-nine students, having thirty-six of them to board in my own family. Among those were seven young men preparing for the ministry.

"I shall ever remember with lively emotions of pleasure¹ the patience and cheerfulness with which the students of this year sustained the privations and trials to which they were subjected by their cramped circumstances. They may be truly said to have borne hardness like good soldiers. While living as in a camp in their midst, and burdened with the charge and responsibility of the literary, theological, laboring, and boarding departments, I found no little support in all my cares and labors from witnessing that, while they lived upon the cheapest fare, had no place for study but the common school-room, no place to retire to for rest but a garret without fire in the coldest weather, and labored diligently three hours every day, no complaint was heard, but that the most entire cheerfulness ran through all their words and actions.

"In a word, those favorable indications of the success of the enterprise soon began to inspire its friends with confidence, and to animate

¹ See Mr. Sanders's Valedictory Address delivered before the Trustees, Faculty, Students, and Friends of Mercer University, December 12, 1839 (given in part in Mallary's *Life of Mercer*, pp. 166-75).

their efforts for the extension of its advantages. An amount was soon raised to erect another large wooden building, with eight comfortable rooms for dormitories, and a brick basement for chapel and school-rooms.

"The second year's operations were commenced with increased accommodations, with an additional teacher and eighty students, seventy of whom boarded in commons. During the second and third years, the building of a larger and more comfortable dwelling, a commodious dining-room, and two society halls, abundantly increased both the comforts and conveniences of the institution."

The growth of Mercer Institute was gradual until 1837, when a new departure was made, the result of which was its elevation to the character and dignity of a college. Inspired by the example of the Presbyterians, who were contemplating the erection of a college at Midway,¹ near Milledgeville, in Baldwin County, the Baptists determined to build one at Washington (Wilkes County). Into this movement Mr. Mercer had gone with all earnestness, contrary to his usual principle of not dividing resources. A hundred thousand dollars had been subscribed for the school at Washington,² when it was decided to give up the attempt, since it was feared that the denomination could not support both institutions. The great financial panic which overwhelmed the country in 1837, and delayed the operations of some of the most solid institutions for several years, was the chief motive for this determination. The establishment of the Southern Baptist College³ at Washington was, therefore, abandoned by its projectors, at a meeting of the Board in Athens in 1837, in consequence of the embarrassments of the times, the inadequacy of the means in hand, etc. It was then determined to connect a collegiate department with the Mercer Institute, continuing at the same time its academic system. Mr. Mercer was sorely disappointed at this,⁴ but magnanimously accepted the decision. "I cannot work alone," was his emphatic declaration; "I must go with my brethren;" and before the close of the year he subscribed five thousand dollars for the endowment of the Collegiate Department at Penfield. Application was made to the Legislature, and a charter was granted by that body in December, 1837,⁵ with the usual privileges to colleges.

¹ Viz, Oglethorpe University (incorporated by act of December 21, 1835; see Prince's Digest, pp. 877-8).

² According to Mr. Butler (History of Macon, p. 299), fifty thousand dollars were subscribed to this object in 1836, which amount was increased to one hundred thousand dollars during the following year.

³ Such was the name of the proposed institution, the act incorporating it having been passed December 29, 1836. (Prince's Digest, p. 879.)

⁴ It seems that, in addition to liberal contributions to the enterprise, he had likewise tendered a beautiful situation in the suburbs of the town of Washington, as a home for the purposed institution.

⁵ See Act to amend an Act, entitled an Act to incorporate the Baptist Convention of the State of Georgia, approved December 22, 1837. (Laws of 1836-37, pp. 152-3.)

OFFICIAL BEGINNING OF MERCER UNIVERSITY.

Under this charter the Baptist Convention of the State of Georgia at its session in May, 1838, elected the first Board of Trustees of Mercer University.¹ The first meeting of this Board was held at Penfield, in July of the same year, when they assumed the management of the institution; and this date may be regarded as the official beginning of Mercer University, though the college classes were not organized until January, 1839. Intermediately an agent had succeeded in securing the transfer of sixty thousand dollars of the subscriptions which had been made to the college at Washington to the University, and in 1838 the institute assumed the title of Mercer University, in honor of its great promoter, the Rev. Jesse Mercer. About the same time a town was laid out around the institution and named after Josiah Penfield, the founder of the school, who was also the donor of one of the first contributions to "aid in the education of poor young men preparing for the ministry." Many lots were at once sold, and the proceeds were appropriated to build a female academy. A condition was attached to all the sales of lots prohibiting the keeping thereon of gambling-houses or tippling shops, on pain of forfeiture of title.

In consideration of the wholesome influence which Mr. Sanders's administration had exerted in the institute, and for the reason that, during the six years of its existence, students had been attracted to it from all parts of the State, twenty young men having been sent out to preach the Gospel, religious revivals among the students having been frequent, and "nearly one hundred of them," to use Mr. Sanders's own words, "having been hopefully transferred from the kingdom of darkness to that of light," it was thought that no better man than Mr. Sanders could be selected as president of Mercer University. He was accordingly chosen, and he entered upon his duties early in January, 1839. His retirement from the presidential chair of the college in December of the same year occasioned a temporary suspension of its exercises. He had then held the position for almost eleven months, and under his able direction the infant University, like its parent, the institute, had enjoyed a fair measure of prosperity, ninety-five students having been in attendance during this first year of its scholastic work.

In February of the following year Mercer University was reopened with one hundred and thirty-two students in the collegiate and academic

¹ The late Thomas Stocks, so long a prominent member in the Georgia Senate and House of Representatives, was the first president of this Board, continuing in that office about twenty-five years. Among the other members of the Board, twenty-seven in all, may be mentioned C. D. Mallary, V. R. Thornton, J. H. Campbell, Jesse Mercer, B. M. Sanders, Mark A. Cooper, Adiel Sherwood, and J. E. Dawson. The members of this Board were fair representatives of the Baptist denomination in Georgia in piety, wealth, intelligence, and in social and political influence. They gave the University its shape and character, and to their wise counsel, in its formative period, is due much of its past success.

departments. The faculty, as then constituted, embraced the Revs. Otis Smith, president and professor of mathematics; Adiel Sherwood, professor of sacred literature and moral philosophy; Robert Tolifree, professor of chemistry and natural philosophy; Albert Williams, professor of ancient languages; and S. P. Sanford and J. W. Attaway, assistant professors. The Convention at this time supported five beneficiaries at the institution.¹

On the 6th of September, 1841, the Rev. Jesse Mercer, who had for half a century occupied a high and influential position among the Baptists of Georgia, and than whom few, if any, in the denomination could be remembered as exhibiting more wisdom in counsel, more profundity in the knowledge of divine things, more assiduity in pious labors, and greater liberality in his contributions to the cause of benevolence, terminated his useful and honored days. Of the influence which he exerted, Mr. Mallary truly and eloquently said: "It was as salutary as it was extensive, and as pure as it was powerful. The gospel which he unfolded with so much skill, clearness, and heavenly unction, had exerted much of its transforming power upon his heart, and rendered him, character and life, an eminent illustration of the truth of the doctrines which he proclaimed."²

In December, 1844, the manual labor system, which had been on trial since the foundation of the institute in 1833, was abandoned, having proved to be inefficacious.³ Several other attempts had been made, during the same decade, to establish manual labor schools in different places, which, with one exception,⁴ had likewise failed. The country was not yet ready for the introduction of that new feature in education.

THE UNIVERSITY CONTINUES THROUGHOUT THE CIVIL WAR.

Mercer University continued to advance in prosperity until the commencement of the War. The Senior class of 1861, which consisted of thirty-one members, was the largest ever graduated from that institution. When the trustees met at Atlanta it was resolved by them not to suspend the University, but to continue its exercises for the benefit of

¹ History of the Baptist Denomination, etc., p. 200.

² See the Report adopted upon the death of Jesse Mercer, which was written by the Rev. C. D. Mallary, and presented before the Convention of 1842. (*Ibid.*, p. 201.)

³ "Not only unprofitable, but positively injurious," thought Mr. Campbell. (*Ibid.*, p. 155.) The Board of Trustees reported December 18, 1844, that "*whereas* the manual labor department of Mercer University has been sustained at a heavy expense—an expense which the present state of our funds will not justify, and has, in our judgment, materially retarded the growth of our institution * * * *resolved*, that this department be and is hereby indefinitely suspended." (*Ibid.*, p. 250.)

⁴ Hearn Manual Labor School, located at Cave Spring (Floyd County), and founded in 1839.

all those who might be able to prosecute their studies. At a later period of the War, a resolution was adopted tendering tuition without charge to disabled Confederate soldiers, many of whom gratefully availed themselves of the kind and patriotic offer.¹

The trustees succeeded in holding a meeting in December of 1865, and began the rehabilitation of the University and the reorganization of its faculty. Three officers were appointed, who conducted the school until July, 1866, when two more were elected, one of whom entered on his duties immediately, and the other early in 1867. One of the effects of the War upon Mercer University was to change its location. In 1850, at a meeting of the Convention at Marietta, a feeble effort was made to move the college to Griffin. In 1857 a more determined effort at removal was made in the Convention in session at Augusta, which, however, experienced a most decided repulse. But the War, and especially the redundant currency it set afloat, made men and communities more adventurous and speculative, and under this influence the project of moving the University assumed a new phase. Consequently, when the City Council of Macon offered one hundred and twenty-five thousand dollars and nine acres of choice lots in a most desirable locality of the town, to the University, if it would remove to that place, its directors did not hesitate in accepting the proposition. The faculty temporarily opened the institution in Macon, on their own responsibility, in 1870, and in 1871, the new charter having been perfected, the trustees resolved to locate the University permanently in that city, and to sustain a high school, under their care, at Penfield, utilizing for that purpose the campus and such of the buildings as might be necessary. Mercer University was, accordingly, formally transferred to Macon in October, 1871. The trustees at once proceeded to the erection of a large and handsome four-story brick building, containing over thirty rooms, which were to be devoted to the library and apparatus, and used for the purposes of recitation. They also erected a brick building as a dormitory and dining-hall for students. A chapel and a building to contain the museum and to furnish lecture-rooms were in contemplation, but the financial panic of 1873 caused a suspension of further proceedings. In his description of the institution, six years later, Mr. Butler² speaks of two buildings of handsome architectural style which were still to be erected, from which it would appear that the design of the trustees, as entertained in 1873, had not then been perfected.

COURSES OF STUDY.

The leading idea in the establishment of Mercer University, as it had been in the case of the institute, was to afford the advantages of a Christian education to the sons of Georgia, and to furnish an intellect-

¹ Butler's History of Macon, p. 300.

² *Ibid.*, p. 301.



MERCER UNIVERSITY.

ual and theological equipment to young men contemplating the gospel ministry. Throughout its entire career it has kept this purpose steadily in view. The University embraces three departments: 1st, the College of Liberal Arts; 2d, the Department of Theology; 3d, the Law School.

In the College of Liberal Arts, the scheme of instruction includes two courses of study,—the Classical (of four years) and the Scientific (of three years). Each of these has a carefully arranged curriculum, and between them applicants have an election. Graduates in the former school receive the degree of bachelor of arts; in the latter, bachelor of science. It is to be observed that *courses*, and not *individual studies*, are elective.

DEPARTMENT OF THEOLOGY.

The Department of Theology, intended for the special theological instruction of candidates for the ministry, has always been regarded as an integral part of the system. In both Mercer Institute and the University a theological education was a primary thought, and was specifically provided for in donations and legacies.¹ Very appropriately, therefore, was the Rev. Adiel Sherwood, in 1840, elected the first theological professor. He was a clergyman of excellent classical and theological training. Since making Georgia his permanent home, in 1818, he had been an active minister, had organized several churches, had preached very extensively, had taught a number of young ministers at his own house, and had been foremost in all measures for the progress of the Baptist denomination in the State. The actual originator of the Convention and of Mercer Institute, it was desired that he should develop the Theological Department of the University, which had grown, in a great measure, from his earnest advocacy of liberal education. But he remained a professor three years only, accepting a call to the presidency of Shurtleff College, in Illinois, in 1843. In 1845 the Theological Department of Mercer University was more fully organized, and was continued until 1862. During that time seven classes, numbering twelve members, graduated with the degree of B. D. The course was quite extensive and thorough, embracing Greek, Hebrew, systematic and practical theology, ecclesiastical history, and Biblical literature. Two professors usually gave most of their time to the instruction in this department, and the course of study extended through three years.²

For some time after the establishment of the Southern Baptist Theological Seminary, this department lapsed into a state of suspended ani-

¹ From the American Baptist Register for 1852, p. 427, we learn that in 1851 there were in Mercer University a Central Association Theological Professorship Fund of \$18,400; a Mercer Theological Fund of \$21,500; and a new Theological Fund of \$450.

² History of the Baptist Denomination, etc., p. 250.

mation.¹ But of late years a renewed demand has arisen for instruction nearer home,² and this school of divinity is now showing signs of vigorous life. The graduates in this department receive the degree of bachelor of divinity.

THE LAW SCHOOL.

The Law School was organized in 1873, with three professorships, viz, international and constitutional law, common and statute law, and equity jurisprudence, pleading, and practice. By an act of the General Assembly of Georgia, "Any person having from the proper authorities of Mercer University in this State a diploma of graduation in the Law School of said University, shall be authorized to plead and practise in all the courts in this State, without further examination."³ The degree conferred is that of bachelor of law.

The property of Mercer University is estimated at three hundred thousand dollars.⁴ Its productive funds amount to about half that sum.⁵ It has excellent buildings, a library of about nine thousand volumes, a very fair equipment of physical and chemical apparatus, and a good cabinet of minerals and fossils. The central edifice is a handsome structure. It has eight commodious recitation and lecture-rooms, with a private study attached to each; three library, two apparatus, and two cabinet rooms; two society halls,⁶ with library; and a suite of apartments for the president.

INFLUENCE OF MERCER UNIVERSITY.

Mercer University has contributed to the pulpit, the bench, the halls of Congress, the gubernatorial office of Georgia, and to the various

¹ This institution, established and opened in 1859, was first located at Greenville, S. C. A concentration of money and patronage on that enterprise, in order to build up a first-class theological seminary at the South, was deemed advisable by the Southern Baptists generally, in consequence of which the Theological Department at Mercer University remained for many years inoperative. Indeed, one of the theological professors of Mercer, Dr. William Williams, left in 1859 to join the faculty at Greenville, being elected to that position. (History of the Baptist Denomination, etc., p. 251.)

² The removal of the Southern Baptist Theological Seminary to Louisville, Ky., in 1877, further precipitated the necessity of reopening the Mercer Theological Department.

³ Act of February 24, 1875 (Laws of 1875, p. 38). See also p. 100 of Georgia Code of 1882.

⁴ See American Baptist Year-Book for 1888, p. 211.

⁵ The endowment of Mercer University, writes Doctor Battle, its able president, though not probably the largest, ranks among the largest of the endowments of Southern denominational institutions. Even in the inception of its career the institution possessed what was considered a liberal endowment for the times, between one hundred and fifty thousand and two hundred thousand dollars having been given for the establishment and endowment of Mercer University and its Theological Seminary. (See Doctor Church's speech. White's Statistics of Georgia, p. 72.)

⁶ These are the property of the Phi Delta and Ciceronian Debating Clubs.

professions and occupations of life a number of the most distinguished, cultivated, and successful men of the day.¹ It has been an efficient agent in elevating and strengthening the denomination under whose auspices it was established; while it has borne an honorable part in developing an intelligent citizenship in the State.

In its history it has had six presidents. The first who filled this office was the Rev. B. M. Sanders, a man of superior sagacity and of great force of character, who had successfully conducted Mercer Institute during the greater part of its career. He served the University during the year 1839. He was succeeded by the Rev. Otis Smith, a well-known educator of that day, who, after two years of service, retired at the close of 1842. The third president was the Rev. John L. Dagg, D. D., a man of large intellect and ample acquirement, and an author of standard ethical and theological works. Doctor Dagg served ten years (1844-54). Rev. N. M. Crawford, D. D., a son of Hon. William H. Crawford, of national fame, was the fourth occupant of the presidential chair. His term of office was from 1854 to 1864. He was distinguished for an extensive and accurate scholarship, and left a deep impress upon the minds of the young men under his charge. The successor of Doctor Crawford was the Rev. Henry H. Tucker, D. D., LL. D., a gentleman possessing a peculiarly original genius and uncommon energy of character, and the author of several works, religious and theological. He administered the affairs of the University from 1866 to 1871. The present able incumbent, Dr. Archibald J. Battle, D. D., LL. D., succeeded to the presidency in 1872, soon after the removal of the University to its present seat, at Macon. He is now completing the sixteenth year of his administration.

The present staff of professors includes educators of culture and experience. It is a noteworthy fact that one of them, Shelton P. Sanford, LL. D., professor of pure mathematics, has occupied his chair from the organization of the University, a period of forty-nine years. He is the author of a popular series of arithmetics and of an elementary algebra. These text-books are used in almost every southern State, and in some of the northern States. Prof. Joseph E. Willet, LL. D., has served the institution for forty-one years in his present capacity as professor of physical science. Among others may be mentioned the Rev. Dr. John J. Brantly, in the department of English, and Dr. J. G. Ryals, in that of theology—scholars worthy to be classed with the best educators of the country.² Altogether there are ten instructors at Mer-

¹ Among other names it is interesting to note that of Richard Macolm Johnston, the popular humorist, who was one of the first three students to receive a diploma from this institution (class of 1841).

² The names of Rev. Patrick H. Mell, D. D., LL. D., in ancient, William G. Woodfin, A. M., in ancient and modern languages, Rev. Epenetus A. Steed, A. M., in connection with the Latin language, and Rev. Shaler G. Hillyer, D. D., in connection with the department of belles-lettres, are inseparably linked with the educational history of Mercer University.

cer University, including Edgar T. Whatley, A. B., principal of its adjunct, Hearn Institute.¹

HEARN INSTITUTE.

This school is located at Cave Spring (sixteen miles from Rome), and its functions are to prepare students for the University classes. It is almost as old as the University, having been founded by the Baptists of North Georgia in 1839.² It was transferred to the State Convention in 1844, and a board of trustees was appointed to take charge of it. The school was in a highly prosperous condition in 1848, with sixty students in attendance. Fifty-four hundred dollars, a part of the Hearn legacy³ of twelve thousand five hundred dollars, had been realized. The year following, the flourishing condition continued, about seven thousand dollars, besides its landed interests, etc., being in the hands of the institution. In 1850 Mr. J. S. Ingraham was secured as principal, and the school prospered. For a series of years the institution continued to thrive under him, the attendance generally varying from fifty to sixty pupils. In 1855 the school was doing well in all respects. Sixty-six pupils had been received during the year, among whom were two young preachers, beneficiaries of the Convention. Mr. Ingraham continued at the head of the Hearn Manual Labor School, as it was then called, until the close of 1857.

In 1863 the Hearn School and the female school at Cave Spring were united temporarily under the Rev. S. G. Hillyer, D. D. There were thirty-five students in the male department. That fall, however, it became necessary to suspend the exercises in consequence of the proximity of the contending armies. This suspension is supposed to have lasted until the end of the War. The buildings were much injured, and the library and apparatus were destroyed by the enemy. The funds of the school, in the hands of the trustees, were invested in Confederate securities and became of no value. The amount thus lost was about four thousand dollars. The school, however, still has twelve thousand dollars of the Hearn legacy in the care of the Georgia Baptist Convention, and its landed estate consisting of some forty or fifty acres.

In addition to the male school at Hearn Institute, a female department, separate from that school, was established, and was for four years under the successful management of Mrs. Undine B. Lane, principal. It was discontinued in 1887.

The number of students in attendance at the institute during the scholastic year of 1887-88 was forty, which, together with the one hundred and forty-seven registered at Mercer University for the same

¹ History of the Baptist Denomination, pp. 215-17.

Catalogue of Mercer University for 1887-88.

American Baptist Register for 1852, p. 458.

² See An act to incorporate the Manual Labor School at Cave Spring, Vann's Valley, Floyd County, Ga., approved December 21, 1839. (Acts of 1839, pp. 130-2.)

³ Mr. Lott Hearn, after whom the school was named, died in 1846.

time, makes a total return from all departments of one hundred and eighty-seven students.

SOUTHERN FEMALE COLLEGE.¹

Beside Mercer University at Macon, there are four institutions of higher education in Georgia which at present enjoy the support and patronage of the Baptist denomination.² They are the Southern Female College, at La Grange; Monroe Female College, at Forsyth; Shorter College (female), at Rome; and the Georgia Seminary for Young Ladies, at Gainesville.

We will first speak of the college at La Grange. This institution is one of the oldest of its kind in the United States. It was organized in 1843, by Rev. J. E. Dawson, as a school of high order for the education of young ladies. Doctor Dawson, however, was quickly succeeded by Milton E. Bacon, A. M., whose first class of five young ladies graduated in 1845.³ Under Mr. Bacon's administration⁴ the college rapidly grew into favor, the graduating classes and the attendance on the various departments of instruction increasing from year to year. Large and beautiful buildings were erected to serve the uses of the school, and for the accommodation of boarders, who came in great numbers from Georgia and the adjoining States. President Bacon retired from office in 1855, and was succeeded in the position by John A. Foster, A. M., who remained in charge until 1857.

ADMINISTRATION OF PRESIDENT I. F. COX.

I. F. Cox, A. M., was the next incumbent. His valued services in this capacity extend over a period of thirty years; and the noble record of usefulness which they represent the future presidents of the college

¹ White's Historical Collections of Georgia. New York, 1854. Page 651.

The Baptist Encyclopædia, etc., by William Cathcart. Philadelphia, 1883. Pp. 1087-8.

The Commonwealth of Georgia, etc., by J. T. Henderson. Atlanta, Ga., 1885. Pp. 280-1.

Catalogues for 1886-87 and 1887-88.

American Baptist Register for 1852, p. 428.

² It should be stated that about 1854 two colleges were established by the Baptists: one, the Cherokee Baptist College, at Cassville, in Bartow County; the other, Marshall College, in the town of Griffin, Spalding County. Both of them failed to secure endowments, and soon passed away. The former existed about ten years. During the first year of its operation seventy-six students were in attendance. Its downfall was hastened by the destruction by Sherman's army in 1864 of the main college structure, with apparatus, library, and other valuable appurtenances. (History of the Baptist Denomination, pp. 217-8.)

³ The alumnae of the college now number somewhat over four hundred.

⁴ About this time the first recorded legislative incorporation occurs. By an act of January 31, 1850 (Laws of 1849-50, pp. 111-12), it became the La Grange Collegiate Seminary for Young Ladies. This name was changed two years later to that of Southern and Western Female College (see act of January 14, 1852, Laws of 1851-52, pp. 311-12). The final alteration took place in 1854, and, by act of February 17th of that year (Laws of 1853-54, p. 131), the institution received its present name of Southern Female College.

should strive to emulate. Mr. Cox has been, in the highest and truest sense, the friend and patron of the institution. For when, in 1863, the college buildings were destroyed by fire, and this calamity, with the financial ruin then prevalent, caused serious embarrassment, with persistent, indomitable energy he kept up the organization of the college despite these seemingly insurmountable obstacles, and with the returning prosperity of the country, assisted by the liberal citizens of La Grange, purchased the present admirable site,¹ and commenced the work of rebuilding. He erected the handsome structures now used by the college, and supplied the various departments,—literary, music, and art,—with an outfit commensurate with the demands of this age of progress and intellectual activity. His unflagging efforts in behalf and for the improvement of the institution for whose weal he had pledged himself have been crowned with their merited reward, and to day La Grange stands first among many, and second to few schools for the higher education of females in the southern States.

Since her husband's death² Mrs. Cox has undertaken the management of the college. In association with her are her son, Prof. Charles C. Cox, A. M., principal of the literary department, and a faculty of sixteen teachers.

The course of instruction pursued at the Southern Female College consists of a primary department; a preparatory department, with first class, second class, and third class; and a collegiate department. The last gives the full four years' course. "The courses of study are adapted to the systematic training and proper exertion of the mental faculties. The aim is to blend the studies which develop and strengthen the mind with those which polish it, elevate and refine its tastes, and adorn the intellectual and moral powers with appropriate graces." With this end in view the college has been organized into the following schools: mathematics, English, Latin and Greek, modern languages, natural sciences, philosophy, elocution, music, and drawing and painting. An elective system has been introduced, by which students not desiring to take the regular course are enabled to concentrate their whole time and attention upon a few subjects.³

SCHOOL OF MUSIC.

Of all the schools, that of music is the most interesting and important, the most thoroughly equipped and ably taught.⁴ This department of the college is famous, and is believed to be hardly equalled in the South. The teachers who have given it such a reputation still have it in charge.

¹ This was done in 1871.

² It occurred in June, 1887, during the commencement exercises.

³ The diplomas given in the college are of two kinds: the full diploma, upon the completion of a course including most of the studies in the schools; and the eclectic diploma, upon finishing a school.

⁴ There are six instructors in this department, whose separate assignments are violin, organ, piano (advanced pupils), piano (theory), piano, voice culture (*Italian method*), and guitar.

They have made a life study of the best European conservatories and most distinguished artists, and are brilliant performers on more than one instrument.

The very large number of pupils in music,¹ many of whom are excellent pianists and vocalists, attest the high appreciation of the department. At the State Fair in 1874 the premium of fifty dollars "for the best display of musical talents by any college," and the premium of twenty-five dollars "for the best performer on the piano-forte," were awarded to La Grange pupils; and at the State Fair in 1872 they gained the same prizes. In 1870 the premium "for the best performer"—twenty-five dollars—and fifteen dollars "for the best performer under twelve years of age" were also won by La Grange pupils. Five different scholars have taken premiums as the "best performers" on the piano. The college is supplied with twenty-one pianos for practice, most of them purchased recently, and a magnificent Steinway grand for concerts.

ART DEPARTMENT.

Another noteworthy feature in the Southern Female College is its drawing and painting department. This is under an artist of skill and experience, who has received thorough training in oil, water-colors, portrait and china painting, and has studied under some of the best teachers, both North and South. Two large studios are fully equipped for the study of art. All due stress is laid on the importance of pupils learning to draw. Drawing from casts and still life is thoroughly taught, preparatory to painting. The only art medal is awarded for the best drawing. The course in crayon is especially attractive. Many fine portraits show the merit of this branch of instruction. Twenty were finished in the college in 1886. Thorough training is given in cast and object drawing. The "premium for the best oil painting by a pupil of any female college," offered at the Atlanta Fair in 1871, was awarded to a pupil of this institution, as were also the premiums for the best drawing and the best painting in water-colors, at the State Fair in 1872. The college has a library of about one thousand volumes, and a museum which is perhaps the most complete in the State. The latter contains eight or nine thousand specimens representing zoölogy, botany, mineralogy, and general and applied chemistry.

The Clonian Society is the name of the young ladies' debating club. It publishes a weekly paper called the *Vox Clonis*, one of the best college organs in the State.

The buildings of the Southern Female College are three in number. The handsome edifice on the northern part of the lot contains an audience room for the college department, and thirteen other rooms for music, laboratory, and recitations; while that on the south side is the new chapel, a large wooden building, Gothic in style, and with a lofty

¹ Out of the one hundred and eighty-two in attendance during the session of 1887-88, one hundred and forty-four were students in music.

roof surmounted on one of its front corners by a tower. The central structure is the boarding house. This is likewise comparatively new, and is admirably furnished for the purposes for which it is intended, having forty-two rooms, with halls, piazzas, and elevator. By means of the latter an ascent is made to the tower, which rises to the height of eighty-five feet, and is used as an observatory, being supplied with a mounted four-inch telescope, clock-work, and other appointments.

La Grange, the seat of the institution under consideration, is situated in Troup County, and is an eminently healthy locality. In proof of its salubrity we have the statement that in twenty-eight years not a single death in the college occurred. We conclude with the opinion entertained by Rev. A. J. Battle, D. D., President of Mercer University, in regard to the general excellence of the school. In a letter dated June 20, 1882, he says:

"A recent visit to the Southern Female College has impressed me with the fact that it has no superior in the South. In all the departments the best talent is employed, and a world of conscientious, faithful work is done. * * * This college boasts the finest school of music in the South. The concerts and other musical displays far surpass any school exhibition I have ever witnessed. * * * Such perfection of voice culture and technical skill is worthy of professional artists. * * * The teacher of vocalization has achieved a brilliant success in the admirably trained voices and artistic vocal execution of her pupils. She is herself a rare and charming vocalist. The fine art department is ably directed. The works upon the walls of the college chapel reflect great credit upon their accomplished teacher."

MONROE FEMALE COLLEGE.

By reference to White's Historical Collections of Georgia, page 561, it will be seen that as early as 1849 the citizens of Forsyth, Monroe County, impressed with the importance of supplying better educational advantages for their daughters, "met for a consideration of the question." The result was the establishment of an institution at first known as Forsyth Female Collegiate Institute.¹ A board of trustees, seven in number (three Methodists, three Baptists, and one Presbyterian), placed Rev. William C. Wilkes in charge, and under his management the college began a career which, under different names and phases of fortune, has continued to the present time.²

¹ See an act to incorporate the Forsyth Female Collegiate Institute, and to appoint trustees for the same, approved December 21, 1849. (Laws of 1849, pp. 110-11.)

² Doctor Wilkes entered upon his duties with a determination to elevate the institution to a rank equal to that of any in the South. He well knew the difficulties to be encountered; but with prudence, energy, and a full board of efficient assistants, the college was soon placed in a position to secure confidence and command extensive patronage. The annual increase of pupils was over twenty-five per cent., and after two years the trustees became convinced that more extensive arrangements were needed to meet the requirements. (White's Historical Collections of Georgia, p. 561.)

In 1856 a change was made which affected the status of the institution. The advantages then accruing to the town from the provision respecting the higher education of the daughters of its inhabitants, induced in the latter a desire for the establishment of a school of high grade for their sons. The subject was carefully reviewed, and the best method for accomplishing their purpose was discussed. The decision eventually reached was to accept the proposition of the Baptist members of the board, who offered to furnish thirty-five hundred dollars with which to build an institute for boys, provided a division of the board of trustees and of the field of labor should be so arranged as to leave to the control and management of the Baptists the school already organized for the education of girls. The thirty-five hundred dollars were accordingly raised and paid over. Two boards of trustees were organized instead of one, and a handsome edifice, known as Hilliard Institute, was erected one mile north of the court-house.

The two institutions thus established moved on in their mission successfully until 1861. The close of the Civil War in 1865 left the South impoverished, its school buildings dilapidated, its social and political systems shattered, and the country under military rule, which gave promise of naught but oppression and ruin. To add to the gloominess of the picture, a debt hung over the Monroe Female College which the trustees were unable to cancel. To meet the emergencies of the case a combination was formed by the Rev. W. C. Wilkes, Hon. A. D. Candler, R. T. Asbury, and Capt. B. M. Turner, and an agreement was entered into whereby the debts of the institution were assumed, on condition that the management, under certain limitations and restrictions, should be placed in their hands. Changes soon followed, new combinations were formed, and other parties became stockholders for more than half the investment. In 1867 Dr. S. G. Hillyer was called to the presidency of the college, an arrangement having been made to the satisfaction of Dr. W. C. Wilkes, who until this time had presided.

For years the affairs of the institution progressed smoothly. But means were wanted to furnish appliances and to give such facilities as were needful for success. The following plan was devised, by which assistance was procured for both institutions: The town council was authorized to sell bonds and purchase a certain amount of stock in each, with certain limitations and restrictions; one of the latter, as incorporated in the bill, being that the organic status of the two schools should remain unchanged. Thus supported, the two institutions took on new life, and continued for years in prosperous operation.

In the winter of 1876 Hilliard Institute was consumed by fire, and in October, 1879, Monroe Female College shared a similar fate. But to the credit of her citizens, Forsyth to-day looks upon both edifices reconstructed, and boasts of educational advantages possessed by very few towns in the State. The college has a main building with rooms for recitation in literature, science, music, drawing, and painting. A

nucleus has been made for a library, laboratory, museum, etc. An excellent corps of teachers are at their respective posts.¹ The attendance of pupils is good,² and the institution is making rapid strides in regaining prestige and popularity.

The first class of Monroe Female College was graduated in 1854, and over two hundred young ladies have received diplomas since that time.³

SHORTER COLLEGE.⁴

This college is situated at Rome, Floyd County. In the summer of 1873 several gentlemen of that city organized a company, and bought for school purposes a piece of property known as "Shelton Hill," located in the centre of the town. Prominent in this organization was Col. Alfred Shorter, who took fifteen shares of the stock and gave the influence of his recognized business capacity to the enterprise.

In October, 1873, the "Cherokee Baptist Female College" was established. Some changes were made in the buildings already standing on the premises and intended to serve the uses of the college. The necessary school furniture and instruments were supplied, and good teachers were secured, thus enabling the institution to afford at the beginning excellent educational advantages. The Rev. L. R. Gwaltney was elected president; and was assisted by a faculty of five instructors. After holding the presidency a twelve-month, Doctor Gwaltney was succeeded in 1874 by Prof. A. B. Townes, of South Carolina. Upon the resignation of the latter in the following year, the institution was again placed under the management of Doctor Gwaltney, who remained in charge until his call in 1876 to the presidency of the Judson Institute, Marion, Ala., when Rev. R. D. Mallery, of Albany, Ga., was chosen as his successor. In 1877 the entire property was transferred to Col. Alfred Shorter,⁵ whose name the college now bears. He removed every building from the hill, and erected three large and elegant structures in their stead, admirably suited for school work. The main edifice contains the Memorial Chapel and thirteen rooms for college purposes. Another building, three stories high, is arranged for the music-rooms, study-hall, and art gallery; and the boarding-house constitutes the third.

¹ Associated with Prof. R. T. Asbury, president of the college, who fills the chair of mathematics, is a faculty of seven teachers.

² The 1886-87 register shows it to be one hundred and seventy-eight.

³ The historical sketch of the college, as above given, is principally taken from its 1886-87 Catalogue, pp. 18, 19, and the Baptist Encyclopedia, p. 809.

⁴ The Baptist Encyclopedia, pp. 1054-5.

Henderson's Commonwealth of Georgia, pp. 275-6.

Catalogue for 1886-87.

⁵ Rightly is the institution called after him; for he was practically its founder, being foremost in the movement which produced it, spending during his life-time one hundred and thirty thousand dollars on the grounds, buildings, and appliances, and leaving by will to the college forty thousand dollars as the nucleus of an endowment.

In 1882 Colonel Shorter sent to Doctor Gwaltney, requesting him to return to Rome and resume his office as president. This the doctor consented to do, and entered upon his duties in the fall of the same year. He is¹ the present incumbent, and is assisted by an able and experienced corps of fourteen teachers. Eight supervise the literary department, four teach music, and two instruct in art.

The regular course of study comprehends five years, one each for the Freshman, Sophomore, Junior, Sub-Junior, and Senior classes. There is likewise a preparatory department. As in the Southern Female College, so in Shorter College, the various branches are arranged in schools, for the benefit of those who desire to specialize. There are ten of these: English; history; mental and moral philosophy;² mathematics; ancient languages; modern languages, including French, German, and Italian; natural science; music; art; and art embroidery. Of all these schools, that of music is the most largely patronized. Out of the one hundred and sixty-three students in attendance on the college during the session of 1886-87, one hundred and forty-two were pupils of music. Instruction in music, as here afforded, embraces the piano, organ, violin, guitar, and vocal culture. This and the art and natural science departments are well equipped with instruments, models, and apparatus.

THE GEORGIA SEMINARY FOR YOUNG LADIES.³

This institution, situated in the town of Gainesville, Hall County, arose from a desire on the part of the friends of education to establish a large female university in Georgia. The matter was broached in the Georgia Baptist Convention, and a committee of twenty was appointed to choose a location for it. In 1877, when the Convention met at Gainesville, as that town offered twenty-five thousand dollars to aid the enterprise, it was selected as the home of the institution. Work was commenced on July 4, 1878, and a charter was procured for the school, which was opened with flattering prospects on the 11th of the September following. At the time of its organization Dr. W. C. Wilkes was president of the faculty and Rev. D. E. Butler president of the board of trustees. During the first year of its existence the seminary had in attendance ninety-four pupils, and during the second year one hundred and twenty-five. There were then in service, we are told, a full corps of popular and experienced teachers, the president himself being an able educator.

Doctor Wilkes continued at the head of the school until his death, which occurred in March, 1886, when Prof. A. W. Van Hoose, the present incumbent, was elected as his successor. Professor Van Hoose assumed control of the seminary early in September of the same year.

¹ March, 1888.

² Doctor Gwaltney has charge of this department.

³ The Baptist Encyclopedia, p. 441. Catalogue for 1886-87.

The session commenced with thirty-one pupils; but before its close in June, 1887, one hundred students had been enrolled. This number has, during the past year (1887-88), been increased to one hundred and thirty-five. In view of this rapid increase in attendance, Professor Vau Hoose was obliged to erect another building for the accommodation of students. This building, a handsome three-story brick structure, contains a chapel on its first floor and school-rooms on the other two floors.

The present faculty of this institution consists of nine teachers. In addition to the primary and the collegiate departments, instruction is afforded in law, hygiene, telegraphy, and book-keeping. Departments of art and music are also attached to the institution, the facilities for the study of music being very good.

GEORGIA FEMALE COLLEGE.¹

We conclude our consideration of Baptist institutions with a notice of the Georgia Female College, which, although now discontinued, still, in view of past services rendered, is fairly entitled to honorable mention by the side of living and thriving seminaries for the advancement and development of higher female education within the borders of the Commonwealth.

The college to which we here refer was located at Madison, Morgan County, and was incorporated by an act of the Legislature of Georgia on the 17th of January, 1850.² At that time it was known as the "Madison Collegiate Institute," but soon afterward the board of trustees, by a legislative amendment, changed the name to that of Georgia Female College.

The school was founded under the auspices of the Baptists, and the men mainly instrumental in establishing it were residents of Madison. Rev. George Y. Browne was called to the presidency of the institution in 1850, and, entering upon his duties in the following year, ably and successfully conducted its operations for the space of a decade. In 1861 he removed to Alabama, but in 1870 returned to Madison and accepted the position which he had formerly occupied in the college, and which declining health compelled him to resign in 1878. "As an instructor," we are told, "George Y. Browne had no superior and but few equals, and those who enjoyed the benefit of his instruction received no superficial education."

Among the other presidents of the Georgia Female College may be mentioned the Rev. J. R. Branham, D. D.; Prof. A. B. Townes, of South Carolina, who held the office for a brief period; Prof. R. T. Asbury, the present head of Monroe Female College, who was called to the chair about 1880; and Col. Edward Butler, son of the late Rev. D. E. Butler,

¹ American Baptist Register for 1852, p. 428.

The Baptist Encyclopedia, p. 445.

White's Historical Collections of Georgia, p. 566.

² Laws of 1849-50, pp. 112-14.

who was in charge of the institution when it was burned in 1882. He was the last of the presidents, and the Georgia Female College is now but a pleasant and interesting memory, constituting no unimportant link in the chain of the educational history of the Commonwealth.

In 1852 the institution had fine buildings, a large endowment, and was a flourishing school. Fourteen thousand dollars had been recently subscribed in Morgan County, which had been increased to eighteen thousand dollars by subscriptions from other parts of the State, for the completion of the buildings, purchase of apparatus, etc. The faculty at that time consisted of twelve instructors, representing the branches of mental and moral science, the natural sciences, mathematics, rhetoric, belles-lettres, natural theology, physiology, French, Italian, Spanish, music, and drawing and painting. The whole number of pupils in attendance during the first session of the college (1851-52) was one hundred and forty-eight.

In 1854 we are advised of the contemplated formation of a normal class, free of all tuition fees, for the benefit of those graduates who might desire to receive instruction in the theory and practice of teaching. One hundred and fifty-six names were enrolled on the college register during the preceding year, and the apparatus was reported to be "of the most recent and approved construction."

A quarter of a century elapses, and we again meet with the Georgia Female College, this time under the efficient management of Professor Asbury, who then, as now, enjoyed a widely extended reputation as a thorough and successful teacher. He was assisted by an able corps of instructors. The main college building was a large and well arranged brick edifice, situated in a beautiful grove, and presenting an attractive appearance. The college was supplied with fine philosophical apparatus.

Such is the last glimpse that we have of an institution which was very popular in its day, and which gratefully recognized as the foundation and chief corner-stone of its prosperity the administration of the Rev. George Y. Browne.

PRESBYTERIAN INSTITUTIONS.

OGLETHORPE UNIVERSITY.¹

Having reviewed the leading Baptist denominational schools in Georgia, our attention is next directed to those in the establishment and maintenance of which Presbyterian energies and resources were chiefly enlisted. Of these there are two. First in time, and also in impor-

¹ Georgia Illustrated, etc., by William C. Richards. Penfield, Ga., 1842. Pp. 6-8.

White's Historical Collections of Georgia. New York, 1854. Page 266.

Thomas P. Jones's Hand-Book of Georgia. Atlanta, Ga., 1876. Pp. 201-2.

Georgia Gazetteer for 1837, p. 323.

White's Statistics of Georgia, p. 78.

tance, is Oglethorpe University, one of the oldest chartered colleges in the State, and for many years a vigorous and flourishing institution.

This University had its origin in a division of the interests of the Educational Society of Georgia,¹ at its dissolution, between the two manual labor schools, the Midway Seminary and the Gwinnett Institute. The trustees of the Midway Seminary, in the spring of 1835, tendered it to the Hopewell Presbytery, believing "that ecclesiastical supervision would give weight and permanency to the object, and secure that moral and religious influence over it which, with a strict and reasonable discipline, would render it more worthy of support and confidence."² The Presbytery accepted the offer, and appointed a committee to report on the expediency of elevating it to the rank of a college.

ORGANIZATION OF THE COLLEGE.

That committee reported at the fall meeting of the Presbytery in 1835, through their chairman, the Hon. E. A. Nisbet, the following resolution, which was adopted: "*Resolved*, That it is expedient that Hopewell Presbytery undertake to endow, organize, and maintain a college, to be under the exclusive government and control of the Presbyterian Church." It was further "*Resolved unanimously*, That this institution shall be located at Midway, Baldwin County."³

In pursuance of this determination, the Presbytery appointed a board of trustees, consisting of twenty-four members, to take charge of Oglethorpe University, as the new college was called. The first meeting of this board was held at Milledgeville, Ga., October 21, 1835; and just two months from that date the desired charter was procured from the General Assembly.⁴ This was ample in all respects. The preamble of the act incorporating Oglethorpe University runs as follows: "*Whereas*, The cultivation of piety and the diffusion of useful knowledge greatly tend to preserve the liberty and to advance the prosperity of a free people; and *whereas*, these important objects are best obtained by training the minds of the rising generation in the study of useful science

¹Alluding to this organization, Doctor Wilson (Necrology, p. 29) says: "The most important enterprise ever entered into by any ecclesiastical body in the State had its inception at the session of Hopewell Presbytery at Thyatira Church, in the spring of 1823. This was the formation of the Georgia Educational Society. Out of this enterprise arose the whole movement of denominational education in the State. To it we trace the existence of Oglethorpe University, Emory College, and Mercer University." See also *ibid.*, pp. 29-35.

²Professor Talmage's sketch in *Georgia Illustrated*, p. 6.

³The idea of establishing the college at Midway was an after-thought, it having at first been the intention of the Presbyterians to found it at Washington, in Wilkes County. This location was selected with reference to its healthfulness, its central situation, and because it was easy of access to all pupils coming from Georgia and the southern States. It was near the great thoroughfare from New Orleans to the North, and within a few miles of the line of the Central Railroad from Savannah to the West, thus bringing the seaboard and the mountains to its doors.

⁴See Prince's Digest (to 1837), pp. 877-8.

and imbuing their hearts with the sentiments of religion and virtue; and *whereas*, it is the duty of an enlightened and patriotic Legislature to authorize, protect, and foster institutions established for the promotion of these important objects: *Be it enacted*," etc. One of the provisions of this charter was that "It shall not be lawful for any person to establish, keep, or maintain any store, or shop of any description, for vending any species of merchandise, groceries, or confectioneries," within a mile and a half of the University, under the penalty of a sum not less than five hundred dollars; the form of deeds granted in the sale of University lots requiring the forfeiture of the lot to the University when those restrictions were violated.

THE UNIVERSITY ORGANIZED.

On November 24, 1836, the University was organized by the election of the following officers and faculty: Rev. C. P. Beman, D. D., president, and professor of chemistry and natural philosophy; Hon. Eugenius A. Nisbet, vice-president, and professor of belles-lettres and mental philosophy; Rev. Samuel K. Talmage, professor of ancient languages; Rev. C. W. Howard,¹ chaplain and lecturer on moral philosophy and evidences of Christianity; and N. Macon Crawford, professor of mathematics and astronomy.

The corner-stone of the University was laid with appropriate ceremonies, and an address was delivered by Chief-Justice Joseph Henry Lumpkin, March 31, 1837. The main college edifice had been commenced the August before, and was completed in July, 1840. This building Professor Talmage, writing in 1842,² thus describes: "It is a brick structure, painted white, two stories high, beside a basement. It is constructed after the Grecian-Doric order, without and within. The central part contains the finest college chapel in the United States; its whole dimensions are fifty-two feet front by eighty-nine feet deep, including a colonnade fourteen feet deep, supported by four massive pillars, and the vestibule to the chapel eleven feet deep. The dimensions of the chapel are forty-eight feet by sixty in the main story, and forty-eight by seventy-one in the gallery, the latter extending over the vestibule. The ceiling of the chapel is in the form of an elliptical arch, resting on a rich cornice, and containing a chaste and ornamental centre piece. Attached to the building are two wings, thirty feet front by

¹ Doctor Howard is entitled to special notice and credit by virtue of the fact that it was at his suggestion and through his personal exertions that the Midway Seminary was established, under the auspices and patronage, as we have seen, of the Hopewell Presbytery. To him likewise belongs the honor of having been instrumental in transforming the school into a college; of proposing the name of Oglethorpe University, which the institution afterward bore; and of having raised, in one year, in Georgia, an endowment fund of one hundred and twenty thousand dollars. (See T. P. Janes's *Hand-Book of Georgia*, pp. 201-2.)

² See *Georgia Illustrated*, pp. 7-8.

thirty-four deep, and three stories high ; making the entire front of the edifice one hundred and twelve feet in length. Each story in the wings is divided into a professor's office in front, and a recitation or lecture room in the rear. There are in the basement story and the wings sixteen rooms, affording ample accommodations, museum, apparatus, and all other conveniences for college purposes.¹ On each side of the campus there was a row of dormitories of one story¹ for the habitation of the students. The other buildings were the president's house, on the south side of the campus, below the dormitories; the academy, a large two-story edifice, opposite it on the north side; and an old chapel, the interior of which was converted into recitation rooms.

The college commenced operations in January, 1838. From that time the number of students gradually increased until 1842, when it amounted to one hundred and twenty-five. Of these, fifty were in the collegiate and seventy-five in the preparatory department.² The first class was graduated in the fall of 1839.

The college year was divided into two sessions. The winter session, which began the collegiate year, opened on the first Monday in January and closed on the second Wednesday in May. The summer session began four weeks after the latter date, and closed on Commencement Day, the Wednesday after the second Monday in November.

In the fall of 1839 the Presbytery, at the request of the board of trustees, offered the institution to the Synod of South Carolina and Georgia, by whom it was unanimously accepted.

President Beman resigned his position in 1841. In November of the same year the Rev. Samuel K. Talmage, a graduate of Princeton, and uncle of the present Dr. T. De Witt Talmage, was called to the presidency of the college. He remained in office until his death, which occurred September 2, 1865.

The exercises of Oglethorpe University were suspended toward the close of the War through the lack of necessary funds; and from 1867 to 1869 the college was still struggling with financial difficulties. All attempts at reorganization had proved fruitless, and the several elections made had been repulsed by declinations. Finally, on October 6, 1869, Rev. W. M. Cunningham was chosen president. He died, however, before the reopening of the college, and on March 31, 1870, Dr. David Wills was appointed his successor. About the same time it was decided to remove the University to Atlanta, where its exercises were resumed in October, 1870, with Doctor Wills as president. After continuing its operations for a year or two, in 1872 the institution was closed, and has not since been reopened, though its organization is maintained through the board of trustees, who meet annually in Atlanta.

¹ These were placed twelve feet apart, and each one was divided into two rooms eighteen feet square.

² See Doctor Talmage's sketch of Oglethorpe University, in *Georgia Illustrated*, p. 8.

The apparatus and other property have been returned to Midway, and, with the former buildings of the college, are used and occupied by the Talmage High School, which was well patronized in 1876, the property being then worth twenty-five thousand dollars.¹

Recently the question of reorganizing and rehabilitating Oglethorpe University has been discussed by the Presbyterians of Georgia. Among the plans suggested is the purchase of some four hundred acres of land at Kirkwood, near Atlanta, including one of the finest groves in the State, as a site for the college.

ROME FEMALE COLLEGE.

This institution, while several years the junior of Oglethorpe University, has this advantage over the latter; that it is still in active existence. The Rome Female College is the outgrowth of the Rome Female Academy, which was established in 1845 by Rev. and Mrs. J. M. M. Caldwell. The college was incorporated and began its work in 1857 under the auspices of the Synod of Georgia. In common with similar institutions under the control of that body,² it passed into private hands in 1862, becoming the property of its president, Doctor Caldwell. After seven years of great prosperity,³ the approach of contending armies in 1864 rendered the suspension of the college a necessity. Another seven years elapsed before it was reopened, under the direction of its former president, in 1871. Since that year it has steadily grown in usefulness, and has maintained its position in the front rank of institutions of learning.

The present faculty of the college consists of nine instructors. One of them, Prof. S. C. Caldwell, has been connected with Doctor Caldwell in his labors for more than twenty years, and is well known in the South as an accomplished and successful teacher of the sciences (physical and metaphysical) and higher mathematics.

The course of study, as prescribed in the collegiate department, occupies five years. The classes are, respectively, the Senior, Junior, Sophomore, Novian, and sub-Novian, the last named being preparatory in its character. Beside the collegiate, there is likewise an art and also a music department. The art department is fully equipped for instruc-

¹ See Janes's Hand-Book of Georgia, p. 202.

² Previous to the War there were two flourishing female institutions under the care and management of the Synod of Georgia. One of them, located at Greensborough, and called the Greensborough Female College, was opened January 2, 1852. (White's Historical Collections of Georgia, p. 477.) The other was situated at Griffin and known as the Synodical Female College. (*Ibid.*, p. 634.) It was incorporated by act of January 22d of the same year. The Rev. Dr. I. S. K. Axson, of Savannah, was at one time connected with the former, and Rev. Carlisle P. B. Martin for some years associated with the latter, in the capacity of president. The Griffin Synodical Female College was used as a hospital during the War, and was burned in 1864.

³ During the first seven years of its existence (from 1857 to 1864) Rome Female College had an average attendance of one hundred and twenty-five pupils.

tion in oil, water-color, and pastel painting, crayon and pencil drawing, china painting, and other modes of decorative art. A fine series of plaster casts and models is provided for the use of the "sketch class," and regular exercises in drawing from living subjects are given twice a week. The success achieved in this department of the college is a source of just pride. A bronze medal was awarded its exhibit of scholars' work, consisting of fifty free-hand and crayon drawings, at the Paris Exposition of 1878. A number of its pupils are now teachers of painting and drawing in other institutions, and several have established profitable private studios.

The department of instrumental and vocal music is well supplied with facilities for instruction and practice, and gives general satisfaction.

The college possesses a valuable collection of physical and chemical apparatus, a cabinet of minerals and fossils, especially rich in Georgia, Alabama, and Tennessee specimens, and a large and well-selected library.

The attendance here during the sessions of 1885-86 and 1886-87 was about one hundred students. This diminution in the numbers attending has been due in large measure to the effect of the establishment of public schools in the city of Rome.

One feature in the Rome Female College has not been touched upon. We refer to the noble relief which the institution has for many years been giving to indigent Presbyterian ministers who need help in the preparation of their daughters for the avocation of teachers. This work was commenced immediately after the War, and since that time, as we are informed by President Caldwell, over seventy-five daughters of such ministers, residing in nine different States, have received succor. "We have now five daughters of ministers," he says, "who are being aided. * * * The results have been eminently good, and the need of this kind of help is such that we do not wish to suspend it. It should be perpetuated; this is one object before us."¹ One of the motives prompting the contemplated purchase of the college property by the citizens of Rome, for presentation to the trustees of the Synod, on condition that that body will at once proceed to raise funds for the enlargement, more thorough equipment, and fuller endowment of the school—is that the opportunities for aiding the daughters of indigent ministers may be increased.

¹ Letter dated March 3, 1888.

METHODIST INSTITUTIONS.

EMORY COLLEGE.¹

In the month of December, 1836, the first and foremost Methodist colleges in Georgia were chartered. The act incorporating Emory College passed the General Assembly on the 10th of that month, and the act which provided for the foundation of what is now called the Wesleyan Female College, at Macon, received its assent on the 23d of the same month. Both are denominational institutions. They are now, and have at all times been, conducted under the supervision and auspices of the North and South Georgia Conferences of the Methodist Episcopal Church South. Latterly the co-operative patronage of the Florida Conference has been added. These colleges belong to the great quartette of educational factors of which the University of Georgia and Mercer University are the other members, the presence and influence of which are generally felt and acknowledged throughout the State.

Emory College is located in the town of Oxford, Newton County, though its original site was at Covington. By the first section of the bill establishing the college a board of seventeen trustees, consisting, among others, of Ignatius A. Few, Lovick Pierce, and George F. Pierce, was appointed to take charge of it. The first formal meeting of this board was held February 6, 1837, in Covington. Twelve of the members were present, and Mr. Few was elected president of the body. One of the objects of this meeting was to inspect the lands offered for the contemplated institution and to locate the college and campus. The trustees visited the lands February 7, 1837.

At a meeting held on the 8th of the ensuing December, Ignatius A. Few, LL. D., was chosen president of the college, and the organization of the faculty was completed by the election of Archelaus H. Mitchell as professor of moral philosophy, "and, for the time being, professor of mental philosophy and belles-lettres;" Alexander Means² as professor

¹ White's Historical Collections of Georgia. New York, 1854. Pp. 574-5.

Thomas P. Janes's Hand-Book of Georgia. Atlanta, Ga., 1876. Page 187.

Seney Hall: An address by Atticus G. Haygood, D. D., President of Emory College, Oxford, Ga., on the occasion of laying the corner-stone by Bishop G. F. Pierce, D. D., LL. D., June 8, 1881. Macon, Ga., 1881. Pp. 16.

Henderson's Commonwealth of Georgia, pp. 268-9.

President's Report of Emory College, Oxford, Ga., and Wesleyan Female College, Macon, Ga., to the patronizing Conferences, December, 1896. Pp. 3-12.

Catalogues of Emory College, 1856-57, 1869-70, 1877-78, 1882-83, 1886-87, and 1887-88.

History of the Department of Technology of Emory College. (September number of Dixie. Atlanta, Ga., 1887. Pp. 552-4.)

White's Statistics of Georgia, pp. 78-9.

Bishop Simpson's Cyclopædia of Methodism. Revised ed., 1882. Page 340.

² Mr. Means was the fourth president of Emory College. It is noteworthy that to him more than to any other person has been due the removal of the college to its present site. (See Haygood's Seney Hall address, p. 4.)

of natural sciences; George W. Lane as professor of ancient languages; and Harry B. Lane as professor of mathematics and civil engineering.

With its departments thus supplied with instructors, the institution was at once opened. Mr. Few soon resigned his place on account of ill health, and was succeeded in the presidency by the Rev. Augustus B. Longstreet, LL. D., who remained at the head of the college until July, 1848, a period exceeding ten years, when he was in turn followed by the Rev. George F. Pierce, D. D., LL. D. Since Bishop Pierce there have been six presidents, viz: Alexander Means, James R. Thomas, Luther M. Smith, Osborn L. Smith, Atticus G. Haygood, and the present able incumbent, Rev. Dr. Isaac S. Hopkins.¹

The first class of three students was graduated from Emory College in 1841. From that time until the present, with the exception of one suspension (1862-63), the exercises of the institution have been regularly conducted. The last returns show a graduation list for the whole period of its existence of eight hundred and twenty-six students.² The average attendance for the past few years has been two hundred students, and during the session of 1886-87 it was two hundred and forty-one.³

The present college faculty consists of fourteen instructors. These conduct, in addition to an academic course of the highest grade, a commercial school, a school of telegraphy, a school of law, and a school of tool-craft and design.

COURSES OF STUDY.

The academic course of study embraces a classical course of six years (including the two sub-Freshman classes), and a scientific course of three years. Of these courses it may be remarked that Bible instruction is an important element in both of them, that branch being pursued through the Junior year in the classical and for the first two years of the scientific course. During the last year in each course lectures on the evidences of Christianity are delivered. The ancient languages

¹ Since the above was put in type, Doctor Hopkins has left Emory College to become president of the Georgia School of Technology, at Atlanta.

The terms of service of the presidents who have come after Bishop Pierce, who resigned in the summer of 1854, have been as follows: Rev. Alexander Means, LL. D., from July, 1854, to December, 1855; Rev. J. R. Thomas, LL. D., from December, 1855, to July, 1867; Rev. L. M. Smith, D. D., from July, 1867, to December, 1871; Rev. O. L. Smith, D. D., from December, 1871, to December, 1875; Rev. A. G. Haygood, D. D., LL. D., from December, 1875, to December, 1884; Dr. I. S. Hopkins, from December, 1884, to July, 1888. Rev. Warren A. Candler, D. D., was installed in the position of president in the fall of 1888.

² Among Emory's graduates are Hon. L. Q. C. Lamar, Associate Justice U. S. Supreme Court; Gustavus J. Orr, the late State School Commissioner of Georgia, widely recognized and admired for his abilities and labors as an educator; and ex-Member of Congress Thomas Hardeman.

³ There were two hundred and fifty-five students in attendance during the session of 1885-86.

are studied through the Freshman, Sophomore, and Junior years. The modern languages are taken up in the Junior and continued in the Senior year. Mathematics runs through the whole of the classical course. The study of English and English composition receives thorough attention both in the classical and scientific courses. There is, moreover, a master of arts course of two years' duration, in which the ancient languages, mathematics, natural science, the modern languages, and mental and moral science enter. Of the schools of telegraphy and law little need be said. The course in the latter is completed in one year. What is especially to be noted in the case of the school of telegraphy is that females as well as males are entitled to the enjoyment of its privileges.

Beside the book-keeping department, which is said to be in successful operation, a school of vocal music is annexed to the institution.

There is also special provision made for the study of Hebrew.

DEPARTMENT OF TECHNOLOGY.

The chief strength of Emory College, and the foundation of its claims to high repute in educational circles, centre in its Department of Technology. This school, which is memorable as being the first successful attempt at introducing and popularizing manual training for youth as a branch of college instruction in Georgia—the other efforts in that direction, made at an earlier date, having proved futile,—was commenced in connection with the college in October, 1884. "A small shop in Doctor Hopkins's yard, containing two foot-lathes and a few tools (all the personal property of the doctor), was all there was to begin with. The need of this kind of education among our own people" (we quote from a writer in *Dixie* for September, 1887) "seemed to be more sensibly felt than ever before, so that before the close of the first year the friends of the institution had donated ten thousand dollars for the benefit of this department. The present commodious building was begun before commencement, and was finished and supplied with machinery during vacation. During this time also a competent instructor had been secured, so that at the opening of the next college year the Department of Technology was ready to begin its work.

"The first year's class—that of 1885-86, as nothing worthy of notice in the way of work was accomplished until the present shop was built—was about three times as large as was expected. During this year the portion of time devoted to shop-work was principally given to elementary training in wood-work. Much attention was paid to mechanical and architectural drawing. The zeal and fondness which the boys manifested for their work and its universal popularity among students¹ and citizens convincingly assured President Hopkins of the timeliness and

¹ Some in the regular course undertook to carry on the work of this department during that year.

utility of the step he had taken, and it soon became evident that the founding of the school was no longer considered an experiment, but rather a potent and useful factor in the future education of the South."

The session of 1886-87 opened with a good attendance for this department, the whole number of students being thirty-five, nearly one-half of whom were received during that year. The same eagerness to learn which characterized the students of the first year was remarked in those of the second. At the State fair held at Macon in the fall of 1886, samples of work in wood and iron, and specimens of drawing from the Emory School of Technology, were exhibited, and a diploma was awarded to the department for general excellence in mechanical work. When it is remembered that the specimens shown on this occasion were the product of the first year's labors, it will be seen upon what a substantial and excellent basis the course of training in this department has from the first rested. "The object of this department is to supply to the country a class of citizens who shall be skilled workmen, and at the same time educated men. * * * Furthermore, it has been sought to embody the principle that mechanical science has in itself an educative power of the highest possible value in the development of the perceptive faculties, the taste, the judgment, and the reason."¹

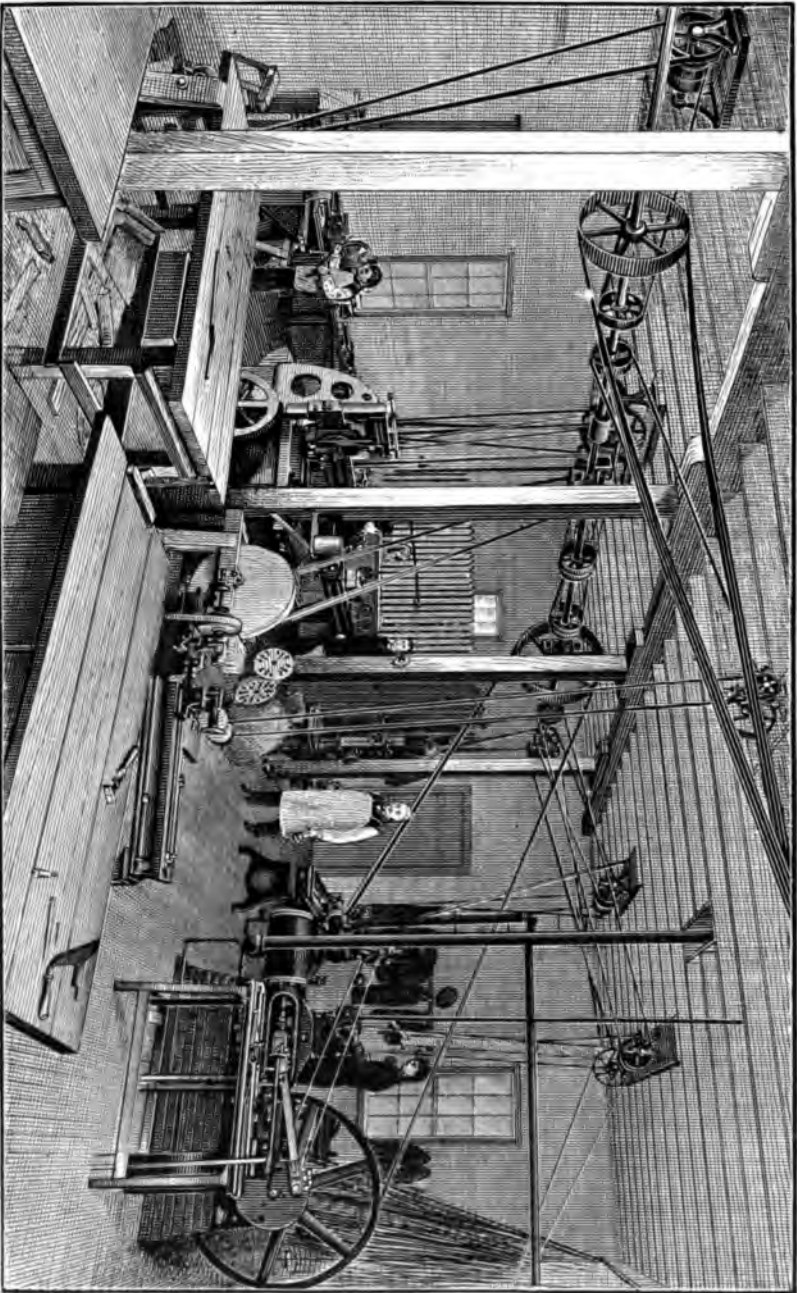
The workshop is conducted as a regular manufacturing establishment. Work is done under the idea that it goes into the market with other productions of skilled labor, and must stand or fall by its excellence and merit. Contracts are taken for all classes of wood and iron work, thus giving the stimulus of variety and gradations of work to the pupil.

For convenience the course is divided into three years. The main reason for doing this is to allow for and encourage strong predilection for any particular branch. The first year is devoted principally to wood-work, embracing the use of hand tools, wood-turning, machine sawing, planing, and boring, cabinet-work, and pattern-making. The second is dedicated, for the most part, to iron-work, embracing chipping, filing, drilling, lathe and planer work, forging, etc. The third year is given to finer work of all classes,—finishing, tool-making, and machine construction. Mechanical drawing is taught throughout the course.² From the simplest exercises the pupil is advanced as rapidly as thorough work will admit, up to the most elaborate and difficult tasks.

By gifts from friends interested in industrial education, North and South, as we have seen, the facilities for practice and instruction in the Emory Technological School have rapidly increased, until at present they represent, in buildings and appliances, an investment of ten thousand dollars. The buildings consist of a new shop, built of brick, with engine and boiler room, and a two-story brick structure, with four apartments, furnishing in all a floor-space of over six thousand square feet. The wood and iron working departments are both adequately

¹ Catalogue for 1886-87, p. 53.

² Three hours a week are given to this branch in the first year, six in the second, and four in the third.



MACHINE SHOP, EMORY COLLEGE.

supplied with apparatus, among which is a milling-machine, made in the department. The motive-power is a Winship engine, of twenty horse-power, with horizontal tubular boiler.

Beside several varieties of engines, some of the school's own designing, including a twenty horse-power automatic (Oorliss) engine, which was recently finished for the Atlanta Constitution job office, the manufactured articles of the Technological School include brackets and mantels, from the simplest to the most elaborate patterns, pulpits, pew-ends, and indeed all classes of ornamental and useful wood-work.

Considering the extreme youth of the department, the small beginnings from which it emerged to its present state of enlarged usefulness, and the work it has accomplished, we cordially praise the noble and energetic pluck and the steady perseverance of its projector and founder, Doctor Hopkins.¹

FREE SCHOLARSHIPS AND HELPING HALLS.

The next subjects to be considered are the Free Scholarships and the Helping Halls of Emory College. Particular credit is due to the institution for the generous hand of assistance and support it has always extended to those who, though lacking the requisite means, yet have the ambition for acquiring a collegiate education. Here we see the great and governing principle and the foundation virtue of this college. It is a significant fact in its history, that since 1837 it has helped to a complete or partial course more than two thousand young men.² The board of trustees, in July, 1874, in order to increase the benefactions of the institution, granted "two free scholarships in the college classes to each presiding elder's district in the three patronizing Conferences, namely, the North Georgia, the South Georgia, and the Florida Conference." These scholarships are given to the sons of laymen and local preachers. Another bounty has been provided for the sons of itinerant preachers and pastors of churches, which is that they are relieved from the payment of tuition.

The "Helping Halls" constitute the other agency which Emory College has employed to benefit its students. With a view to aiding in obtaining collegiate education young men who were very poor, but desirous of learning, the college, as far back as 1876, began, in a little six-room cottage, the experiment of procuring cheap board for those who needed it. In the fall term of that year ten young men commenced housekeeping in the rented house. For three years the experiment was conducted in the little cottage. At the end of that time these facts were established: (1) That cheap and good board was within the reach of poor boys; (2) that in health, morals, social standing among students and citizens, and scholarship, the Hall boys ranked with the best.

¹ Since the resignation of Doctor Hopkins, the technological department has been discontinued.

² See Catalogue for 1886-87, p. 62.

From the beginning, including the current year, not less than four hundred young men of limited means have found in the Helping Halls the solution of their financial problem, and have been enabled to take a full or a partial college course. These Helping Halls are under the direct control of the president of the college. He appoints the managers and they are responsible to him.

No small boys without guardians, or persons not needing aid, or pupils of bad character, are admitted to them. Three of the largest and best houses in the town of Oxford are used as Helping Halls.

SENEY HALL.

The college buildings are situated in a grove of oak and hickory of original growth, the grove embracing an area of forty acres. Of these buildings there are six, noteworthy among them being Seney Hall, the gift of Mr. George I. Seney, of Brooklyn, N. Y. There are few college buildings in the country so admirably constructed and so thoroughly furnished as Seney Hall. It is three stories high, the first and second floors being occupied by four lecture-rooms, and the third being devoted exclusively to the use of the college library. The building also contains eight offices and reading-rooms.¹ Beside the college buildings are two society halls, belonging respectively to the Few (organized in 1839) and Phi Gamma (organized in 1837) Literary Societies. They have their separate libraries, amounting in all to about five thousand volumes. A monthly publication of these societies, known as the Emory Mirror, was started in October, 1879, and has been continued to the present time.

While Emory College has furnished the State and country at large with leading men in all ranks of public and private life, the peculiar glory of the institution is that it makes higher education possible to young men of limited means.²

WESLEYAN FEMALE COLLEGE.³

"For my own part, I call education, not that which smothers a woman with accomplishments, but that which tends to consolidate a firm and regular character; that which tends to form a friend, a com-

¹ Mr. Seney's other gifts to the college included seventy-five thousand dollars to increase its endowment fund, and five thousand dollars to aid in paying one of its debts.

² Among the professors at various times connected with Emory College may be mentioned the late Gustavus J. Orr, LL. D., and G. W. W. Stone, in mathematics; I. S. Hopkins, D. D., and Rev. A. Means, LL. D., in physics; Rev. Morgan Callaway, D. D., in English language and literature; A. G. Haygood, D. D., LL. D., and W. A. Candler, D. D., in metaphysics; H. A. Scomp and Rev. J. M. Bonnell, D. D., in Greek; and W. D. Williams and Rev. J. O. A. Clark, D. D., LL. D., in Latin.

³ Georgia Illustrated, by William C. Richards. Penfield, Ga., 1842. Pp. 13-16.

An Address on Female Education, by Daniel Chandler. Mobile, Ala., 1853. Pp. 32. (A reprint of the original speech delivered at Athens, Ga., in 1835.)



SENEY HALL, EMORY COLLEGE.

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panion, and a wife. I call education, not that which is made up of the shreds and patches of useless arts, but that which inculcates principles, polishes taste, regulates temper, cultivates reason, subdues the passions, directs the feelings, habituates reflection, trains to self-denial, and more especially, that which refers all actions, feelings, sentiments, tastes, and passions, to the love and fear of God." So wrote Miss Hannah More of the proper scope and aims of female education, in the higher sense in which she understood it. These views it has been the privilege of a country other than England to inaugurate and apply. America, or rather Georgia, claims the honor of establishing the oldest chartered and regularly organized college in the world for graduating young ladies. The institution to which we allude is the Wesleyan Female College at Macon. "The founders of this 'mother of female colleges' (as President Bass¹ thinks it may justly be called) were doing a greater and wiser work than they at first imagined. "They set in motion a train of influences destined to roll as far as civilization extends, and to act a most important part in shaping the history of the world."²

The act of incorporation for the Georgia Female College was approved by the General Assembly of the State December 23, 1836.³ For fifteen years and more prior to that time the subject of a more liberal system of female education had received earnest attention and had been extensively discussed in Georgia. The sympathies of fathers and

Janes's Hand-Book of Georgia. Atlanta, Ga., 1876. Pp. 188-9.

Butler's Historical Record of Macon. Macon, Ga., 1879. Pp. 116-21, 296-9.

Henderson's Commonwealth of Georgia. Atlanta, Ga., 1885. Pp. 271-3.

Presidents' Reports of Emory College, Oxford, Ga., and Wesleyan Female College, Macon Ga., to the patronizing Conferences. December, 1886.

College Catalogues for 1855-56, 1865-66, 1869-70, 1871-72, 1874-75, 1877-78, 1886-87, and 1887-88.

White's Statistics of Georgia, pp. 79-80.

Bishop Simpson's Cyclopædia of Methodism. Revised Ed., 1882. Page 920.

Act of incorporation, assented to December 19, 1843, and Statutes and Regulations of the Board of Trustees.

Educational Needs of the South; an Address by Gustavus J. Orr. Washington, 1879. Pp. 5-6.

Southern Ladies' Book. Macon, February, 1840. Vol. I, No. 2: "The Georgia Female College; Its Origin, Plan, and Prospects." By George F. Pierce.

¹ In a letter dated September 30, 1887, he says: "Oberlin in Ohio, for men and women, was chartered about the same time, or a little before perhaps, but did not confer *any degrees* till after the Georgia Female College had conferred degrees. The same may be said of Mt. Holyoke in Massachusetts, which never bore the name of college, but obtained charter privileges to confer degrees a little prior to our college, but I think it has always been called a seminary, and has not conferred degrees, or did not till after our college had done so. I think it a well-established fact that the Georgia Female College, now Wesleyan, is the first college in the world that ever conferred a degree upon a woman. Certainly it is the first strictly woman's college that exercised the prerogative." See also Encyclopædia Britannica, 9th Ed., Vol. X, p. 437; and Bishop Simpson's Cyclopædia of Methodism, Revised Ed., 1882, p. 920.

² Catalogue for 1886-87, p. 52.

³ Laws of 1836, pp. 101-3.

mothers were alike enlisted in the all-absorbing question. Many of the latter, interested for their daughters, evinced the power of the female mind by the admirable communications and essays which they published in the gazettes throughout the State.¹ The opinion in the *Old World*, long maintained, that the education of women should be confined to the "mere rudiments of learning and to domestic application," had prevailed in America. It was now, however, undergoing a modification. A true appreciation and recognition of female capabilities were the order and inspiration of the day.

BILL REPORTED BY HON. D. G. CAMPBELL.

The first prominent action taken in this matter was during the session of the Legislature in November, 1825, when, as an accompaniment to the report of the Committee on Public Education and Free Schools, Hon. Duncan G. Campbell² offered the following: "A Bill—To be entitled An act to establish a public seat of learning in this State for the education of females." The preamble, because of the interest which gathers about it from its association with these early efforts at founding a female college, may be appropriately quoted: "It is the distinguishing happiness of the present generation to live in an age of improvement and enjoy the means of ameliorating the condition of all classes of society. In a review of the progress of literature throughout the country in which we live, we are furnished with the fact that in no part of this vast Confederation has the education of females been the object of public munificence. To this class of society is intrusted the early instruction of both sexes, and our feelings and our principles are of maternal origin. How necessary, then, that a department so high and charged with duties so delicate and important should early be placed under the regenerating hand of science and religion. These are the strongest safeguards, under Providence, of political security and of individual excellence. To direct them in their appropriate destinies is the grateful duty of those who wish well to the national prosperity. For the acquirement of solid and useful female education our sister States will afford but incompetent reliance. And if we were but satisfied of their sufficiency, the resort would be too humiliating for the generous ambition of Georgia and her means of indulging it. For the purpose, therefore, of rescuing from comparative obscurity the fairest portion of our community, and of enabling them to contribute to the valuable store of literature, philosophy and religion,—*Be it therefore enacted,*" etc.

It was provided in this bill that the general superintendence and regulation of female education throughout the State, and particularly of the public seat of learning established for that purpose, should be

¹ Butler's History of Macon, p. 116.

² He was the father of the late Hon. John A. Campbell, ex-Associate Justice of the Supreme Court of the United States.

committed and intrusted to a board of trustees, to be denominated "The Board of Trustees of the Female Seminary of Georgia," and to consist of fifteen males and fifteen females. There were seven other sections in the bill, defining the authority of the Board and making all necessary provisions for the permanent establishment of the institution. The bill passed the House, but met with strong opposition in the Senate. Although the Legislature declined to pass the bill, Mr. Campbell was generally regarded, and is still gratefully remembered, as the originator of the scheme which contemplated female education in Georgia. Five years prior to the introduction of this bill he had labored in his district of the State and before the General Assembly in the interest of female education. His object was the establishment of an institution wherein females could enjoy educational advantages equal to those afforded in male colleges. Upon his death, which occurred in July, 1828, the bar and the press, and the State University at Athens, rendered the highest tribute to his public services. In no instance did they omit to eulogize his efforts in behalf of female education.¹

After the death of Colonel Campbell, the interest which he had excited in a higher standard for the education of females began to wane, until 1834, when, at the annual commencement of the University of Georgia, Daniel Chandler, Esq., delivered his memorable address upon female education before one of the largest and most refined audiences that had ever assembled in those classic halls. The address was an eloquent and a brilliant appeal in behalf of the intellectual capabilities of woman. In announcing his subject, Female Education, Mr. Chandler said:

"It concerns us all. It interests the present and all coming generations. It is the parent of patriotic feeling, virtuous sentiment, of religious desire, and literary distinction. It connects time with eternity, and brings into sweet identity hope and immortality."

After speaking of the shameful neglect with which female education had been treated, he continued: "But the opinion as to female incapacity is undergoing a change. The developments of the past, made under circumstances of peculiar neglect and oppression, are correcting preconceived opinions and pre-existing prejudices. Truth has flashed its light upon the world, and the force of its eloquence has arrested the attention of philosophic skeptics and moralizing metaphysicians. It

¹ In a eulogy published in Washington, Ga., August 9, 1828, occurs the following passage:

"The Christian community mourns a support, while one star will ever shed its mild and tranquil light on *his memory*. It was that which was lighted, when, amidst the prejudices of the age, he called on his country to elevate the standard of female education, and, by 'an enlightened female community, to add strength to the State and perpetuate the blessings of a free government.'

"Female gratitude would record this philanthropic, though unsuccessful, effort in indelible characters, and many a tearful eye will attest how those whom he would have served sorrow that his sun has descended; that a good man has fallen."

has pointed to ancient and modern days, and rescued from oblivion's wave the illustrious names of many a daring, dauntless soul, of many a gifted, splendid intellect."¹

In another place² he said: "Give the female the same advantages of instruction with the male; afford her the same opportunities for improvement; and she will struggle with the boldest mind for the mastery in science and in letters, and outstrip in the proud race of distinction many of the favored objects of parental solicitude and legislative bounty."

This address was subsequently printed, and copies of it were distributed throughout the State. The effect produced in Georgia by its publication and dissemination cannot be over-estimated. It gave a new direction to the opinions and feelings of the people on the very important subject of female education, wrought a wonderful change in the minds of all who had ever disputed "an equality in the intellectual culture of the two sexes," and contributed in some measure to the establishment of several colleges and institutions which have proved a great blessing to the State.

FOUNDATION OF THE GEORGIA FEMALE COLLEGE.

Pursuant to the suggestion first advanced by Mr. Campbell, the citizens of Macon were contemplating building a seminary for females, independent of the male academy, with grades of classes similar to a college course, when, in 1835, the Georgia Methodist Conference assembled in their city, and it was ascertained that that body had under consideration the foundation of a permanent and thoroughly organized institution for the education of women. At a meeting of the citizens of Macon held in June of the same year, it was resolved that a committee of four, consisting of Messrs. R. A. Beall, Jere Cowles, Robert Collins, and Henry G. Lamar, should be appointed to secure the influence of Revs. John Howard, Sinclair, and Tally, resident ministers in Macon and members of the Conference, who should represent to the Conference the intention of the citizens of Macon to establish a female college and their willingness to place it under its fostering care. A site was chosen, and nine thousand dollars were subscribed for the proposed college.³ When the Conference re-assembled in January, 1836, the tender was cordially accepted, and Dr. Lovick Pierce was appointed to serve as travelling agent to collect funds to build the college and put it in operation. In this capacity he continued to act for two years.

¹ Chandler's Address on Female Education, p. 9.

² *Ibid.*, p. 31.

³ When, in 1832, the lots were laid off on the common for the purpose of sale, the five acres on Encampment Hill were reserved for a college or some public building. The citizens made an application to the City Council for a grant of the reserve for the Macon Female College. The Council agreed to dispose of it for twenty-five hundred dollars; and at a called meeting on the 8th of July, 1834, the above-mentioned sum was subscribed toward the college, which was afterward increased. (*Butler's History of Macon*, p. 121.)

Doctor Pierce was from the beginning, in more senses than one, the unswerving friend of the institution. A trustee of the college from its foundation to the end of his illustrious life, proudly cherishing its memories, and ever watchful of its best interests, he shares with his son, Bishop George F. Pierce, also a prominent member of the board, and at one time employed as its financial agent, a position in the Wesleyan's annals which will always be the subject of grateful and admiring retrospect.¹

The first official record of the Georgia Female College, contained in its charter, embraces the names of the persons appointed to act as its trustees. These were substantially the same as those which constituted the Board of Emory College, viz: James O. Andrew, John W. Talley, Samuel K. Hodges, Lovick Pierce, Ignatius A. Few, Alexander Speer, William Arnold, Thomas Samford, William J. Parks, George F. Pierce, Elijah Sinclair, Henry G. Lamar, Jere Cowles, Ossian Gregory, Robert Collins, E. Hamilton, George Jewett, Henry Solomon, Augustus B. Longstreet, Walter T. Colquitt, James A. Nisbet, and Robert Augustus Beall.

The board of trustees held many meetings, and had many interesting discussions as to the plan of the building, the ways and means of erecting it, the adoption of the curriculum, etc. Being pioneers, it is remarkable that so few mistakes were made. Two years after their organization, that is, in June, 1838, the trustees elected a president of the college and one professor, and in the following November the other professors and officers were chosen. The college, crowning Encampment Hill, since known as College Hill, was opened to the public and began its appropriate work January 7, 1839, with the following faculty: Rev. G. F. Pierce, president and professor of English literature; Rev. W. H. Ellison, professor of mathematics; Rev. T. B. Slade, professor of natural science; Rev. S. Mattison, principal of preparatory department; B. B. Hopkins, tutor; John Euhink, professor of music; Miss Lord, first assistant in music; Miss Massey, second assistant in music; Mrs. Shelton, matron; Mrs. Kingman, department of domestic economy; and A. R. Freeman, steward.

OPENING OF THE COLLEGE.

The opening of the college, even at that time, was recognized as an important event in the history of the times. John O. Butler, in his *History of Macon*, p. 298, says:

"It was an occasion of great interest and deep and thrilling excitement. A large and respectable number of the citizens of Macon assembled in the college chapel to witness the opening scene. The hopes

¹ In his Report to the Patronizing Conferences in December, 1886, President Bass suggests the propriety of erecting a handsome and commodious edifice, to be known as Memorial Hall, and to bear the honored and beloved names of Lovick and George F. Pierce, as a monument to the devoted father and son whose lives were consecrated to the work of education in Georgia.

and the fears of its friends, the predictions of *ies, and the*
eager delight of the congregated pupils, all conspired to *rest the serv-*
ice with an interest additional to its intrinsic impor *"*

On that day ninety young ladies enrolled their names as pupils; and before the termination of the first term the number increased to one hundred and sixty-eight.

The first class of eleven graduated in 1840. Since that time¹ eleven hundred and six have received A. B. diplomas, including the class of forty-eight young ladies which graduated in 1887. It has been the custom from the beginning, and until a very recent date, to confer master of arts degrees on graduates ten years after the receipt of their A. B. diplomas, and in that time more than seven hundred have been complimented with such honors. Beside these, there have been thirty-one graduates in the honorary first degree, eight in the honorary second degree, and fifty-nine in music. According to Mr. Butler,² who wrote in 1879, the largest number of undergraduates for any one year was two hundred and forty-four (in 1863-64). The smallest was one hundred and four, during the session of 1843-44. The last catalogue, that for the year 1887-88, shows a total enrolment for the college of three hundred and twenty-six students.

EARLY HISTORY OF THE INSTITUTION.

Having given these figures, we proceed with the early history of the institution. The buildings were completed in January, 1839, at a cost of eighty-five thousand dollars. We have the following contemporaneously published account of the Georgia Female College as it then appeared:³

"The college is located on a commanding eminence, midway between the business portion of the city of Macon and the village of Vineville. Four acres are enclosed with a neat and handsome fence. The edifice is one hundred and sixty feet long by sixty wide, rising four stories high in the centre, with wings three stories high. The roof is flat and covered with tin, and surrounded by a parapet. The front view is relieved from the monotony of a plain surface of brick by a recess of several feet, over which the roof projects, supported by massive pillars. There are fifty rooms in the building, with a spacious dining-room attached, library rooms, parlors, etc. The rooms used for sleeping are usually eighteen feet square, with large windows, ceilings high pitch, so as to allow a full and healthful volume of air. The building can accommodate with comfort one hundred and twenty boarders. The view from the cupola is one

¹ It is worthy of special remark that during the late war between the States the college was kept open, and went on regularly with its work, with the exception of two or three weeks when General Sherman passed by on his march to the sea, and of two days when General Wilson took possession of the city.

² History of Macon, p. 298.

³ Quoted in Butler's History of Macon, pp. 296-7.

of the most picturesque to be obtained from any public edifice in the State. The city of Macon is spread on the plain below, with its busy streets alive with the signs of bustling trade. Splendid mansions are set upon the surrounding hills, and Vineville is seen stretching its quiet length until the pines that border its more thickly settled portions hide from the gaze its more retired dwellings; the mighty sweep of horizon, with its radius of many miles, round and round, without a break, until in the far distance the very heavens seemed to have leaned for rest upon the forest trees that tower up, young and old, in sturdy strength, as if glad to bear the honorable burden; the Ocmulgee, winding its current along, hid in the overshadowing forest, and leaving the beholder to trace its route by the vigorous growth that shoots heavenward from its fertile banks. It is a scene of beauty and grandeur, of active life, and of sober stillness; Art amid her manufactures and her ornaments, and Nature in her simplicity and repose."

From what has been said of the auspicious opening of the Georgia Female College, its well organized faculty, the large attendance of pupils, and its admirably equipped college buildings, it might be inferred that a career of prosperity was in store for it. But such did not prove to be the case. The views and plans of the trustees were too liberal for their age, or at least for the cramped financial condition of the times.¹ They became responsible for the salaries of professors and teachers; debts accumulated and creditors threatened to close the doors of the college. The Georgia Female College was actually sold and bought at sheriff's sale, and given to the Georgia Annual Conference of the Methodist Episcopal Church. The president and faculty resigned, but they were immediately elected to fill like places in the *Wesleyan Female College*, the new name given to the institution. Thus the college, without the loss of time in its great work, passed under a new jurisdiction, and set out upon a new career. The date of these occurrences was 1843.

In December of that year a charter was granted, establishing the institution on its present basis and under the corporate name of *Wesleyan Female College*.²

GEORGIA FEMALE COLLEGE BECOMES THE WESLEYAN FEMALE COLLEGE.

In July, 1850, a committee appointed for that purpose reported to the board of trustees a history of the manner in which the Georgia Female College changed its title and relations and became the *Wes-*

¹ It is stated by Mr. Butler (*History of Macon*, pp. 297-8) that when the college commenced operations it was encumbered by a debt of twenty thousand dollars, which was the main source of its subsequent embarrassment.

² See "An act to incorporate a Wesleyan Female College, to be located in the city of Macon, Ga.," approved December 19, 1843. (*Laws of Georgia*, 1843, pp. 41-3.) The composition of the new board, as constituted by this charter, was almost identical with that of the old, nearly every surviving member of the old board holding his seat in the new.

leyan Female College. A part of that report, taken from the minutes of the board, is here presented :

"The committee find it necessary to refer to the Georgia Female College in order to arrive at facts connected with the history of the Wesleyan Female College. The friends of education inaugurated the former with bright prospects, but it was found at the end of five years to be irretrievably bankrupt, not able to pay ten cents in the dollar. The most of its friends surrendered the enterprise as an entire failure. Here the committee cannot refrain from mentioning the names of Rev. Samuel Anthony and William H. Ellison as having used extraordinary efforts to sustain the institution. They called on a particular friend, William Scott, Esq., of Vineville, to advise them of any means by which the college could be continued. He suggested the whole plan on which the Wesleyan Female College is now settled. After the plan was submitted by their friend, William Scott, to Messrs. Ellison and Anthony, and approved by them, the friends of female education then came at once to its aid.

"Mr. Elam Alexander, the original contractor for the building, had a mortgage on it for a large amount, and was determined to sell it as soon as he could legally do so. When it was ascertained that his claim could be bought for ten thousand dollars, the following gentlemen, with their own money, bought the claim and divided it into ten shares, each one thousand dollars, as follows: George W. Persons, William Bailey, John Rawls, James Dean, William H. Ellison, Ambrose Chapman, one share each; and James A. Everett and William Scott, two shares each. The mortgage was foreclosed; these gentlemen bought the property and became the *bona fide* owners of the building. The object was not to speculate with their money, but to advance female education. They tendered the college building to the trustees for what it had cost them. Their agent, Rev. Samuel Anthony, made labored and repeated efforts to raise the amount necessary to purchase the college building, but was unsuccessful. There was still left unpaid between seven thousand dollars and eight thousand dollars, which the late James A. Everett proposed to advance, on the condition that the trustees would give him four perpetual scholarships in the institution. The trustees accepted the proposition, and got a title to the college buildings, which has been legally and correctly obtained."

Dr. W. H. Ellison was the second president of the Georgia Female College, and the first of the Wesleyan Female College. There have been four other presidents, viz: Drs. E. H. Myers, O. L. Smith, John M. Bonnell, and William C. Bass. Doctor Bass has held the office since 1874, and also occupies the Seney chair of mental and moral science. The Rev. C. W. Smith, recently¹ deceased, was elected secretary of the faculty in 1852. He had been a professor in the college since 1854. At the time of his death he was occupying the Lovick Pierce chair of

¹ April 5, 1888.



WESLEYAN FEMALE COLLEGE, MACON.

1701

the board of education has in the past consisted of general teachers, seven of whom were employed in teaching music. With the exception of four or five these teachers are all women.

SECRET

The curriculum embraces the English, Latin, French, French and German languages, a full course in mathematics, the natural sciences, mental and moral philosophy, legal studies, and the history of Christianity, parliamentary law, literature and history, history, education, and composition. The preparatory department is designed for those who are unprepared to enter the regular college course, and before the pupil is admitted to the second or third year in the college, she must be able to spell well and to read fluently. A writer of fair hand must have completed geography; have studied some elementary English grammar; have familiarized herself with the fundamental rules of arithmetic, including proportional reduction, and decimal and vulgar fractions; and must be able to translate and parse simple Latin. Beside the regular A. B. course, there is a post-graduate course of course in the Episcopal Roman College, the one customarily awarded a degree of conferring degrees upon alumnae of ten years standing having been abolished. This course extends through two years, and upon its completion the A. M. diploma is awarded. Mathematics and natural English, Latin, French, German, French, and natural sciences are the main studies in the post-graduate course.

The instruction is based upon a knowledge of the child, the pupil and the organ and of those factors and relations. The department is naturally divided into two sections, the grade school and the normal school. Each school is equipped to maintain studies each grade comprising a definite portion of the pupil's program in the school. Each grade is assigned as far as possible to a special teacher who gives instruction to all in that grade as well as that containing in it, based on the principles of the education of man, securing the highest order of skill in the teaching of the various courses.

All who accomplished the work as prescribed in the public school received musical diplomas. The popularity of this department of the college is sufficiently evinced in the fact that of the three hundred and twenty-six students in attendance on the institution during the session of 1887-88, one hundred and thirty-eight were pupils in instrumental music and forty-six in singing, vocal exercises.

The art department is under the direction of a talented artist and is well supplied with the most up-to-date equipment for successful

¹ Among the professors of the University of Chicago who have been active in the study of the ancient languages of the Semitic family are W. Stone and C. W. Ceram, who have been active in the study of the ancient languages of the Semitic family. J. R. Thomsen and Mrs. J. R. Thomsen have been active in the study of the ancient languages of the Semitic family.

study. The course includes every style of drawing and painting, china decoration, and embroidery. A full course in art, including perspective, entitles the graduate in this department to an "art diploma."

The munificent gift of over one hundred thousand dollars by Mr. George I. Seney, of Brooklyn, N. Y., has enabled the trustees to make such additions and changes in the main college building as to render it one of the most attractive and complete edifices for educational purposes which may be found either at the North or in the South. This building is two hundred and forty-six feet long and eighty-five feet wide. It is five stories high, including the mansard roof, and is surrounded on three sides by ample upper and lower colonnades. Arcades, stairways, transoms over every door, and broad passages throughout the entire building give adequate ventilation, and the structure throughout has every modern convenience and comfort. The first floor contains the parlors, library room, museum, and professors' family rooms; the second and third contain the sleeping rooms of boarding pupils, matron, and lady teachers; and on the fourth floor are located the art hall, society halls, and gymnasium.¹ There are two other buildings on the college premises used as chapel, laboratory, and recitation rooms.

BENEVOLENCE OF MR. GEORGE I. SENEY.

Before concluding this sketch of the history and educational work of the Wesleyan Female College, it is proper to add a word in recognition of the bounty of one who has proven himself the second father of the institution. The building of which I have spoken is a living monument to the liberality of George I. Seney. Independently of the sixty-five thousand dollars donated for the purposes of renovating, enlarging, and modernizing the old college edifice, Mr. Seney has appropriated five thousand dollars, to be equally divided between the college library and the scientific department and to be expended in their equipment; five thousand dollars for improving the grounds and furnishing the building; and fifty thousand dollars to be set apart as "a perpetual endowment, the income from which may be employed according to the wisdom of the trustees."² Of the last-mentioned sum, twenty-five thousand dollars have been applied by the board to endow the president's chair, which is known as the "Seney Professorship." By request of Mr. Seney, the other twenty-five thousand dollars were applied to the endowment of a chair, to be called the "Lovick Pierce Professorship;" for, as the philanthropist declared, "there is no man, North or South, whose character I admire more, and whose name and virtues I would prefer to perpetuate."

In all, his gifts³ to the Wesleyan Female College amount to one hun-

¹ This is a large hall, sixty by ninety feet, well lighted and ventilated, and supplied with ample apparatus for healthful exercise.

² Catalogue for 1886-87, p. 47.

³ They were all made in 1881.

dred and twenty-five thousand dollars—a similar sum to that received from him by Emory College, making a total benefaction for both institutions of two hundred and fifty thousand dollars. In appreciation of these gifts and of the noble Christian character of Mr. Seney, the faculty and students of Wesleyan Female College, with the sanction and hearty approbation of the board of trustees, have adopted his birthday, which occurs on the 12th of May, as a regular college anniversary. It is named in the calendar "Benefactor's Day," and is annually observed by suitable literary and musical exercises, in connection with the anniversary of the literary societies.

LA GRANGE FEMALE COLLEGE.¹

The Methodists have the largest representation in colleges of any religious denomination in Georgia. In addition to the two just mentioned, they claim five others, viz: La Grange Female College, at La Grange; Georgia Methodist Female College, at Covington; Andrew Female College, at Cuthbert; Dalton Female College, at Dalton; and the Methodist College for young ladies, at Gainesville.

First of these, in many respects, is the La Grange Female College. Founded in 1833, it was, in its infancy, an academy of high grade, and its first teacher of note was Rev. Thomas Stanley. In December, 1847, under the presidency of Mr. Joseph T. Montgomery, a charter was procured, and the academy became a college.² After several years of great prosperity, more than two hundred girls being often in attendance,³ the whole college property was sold to the Georgia Annual Conference of the Methodist Episcopal Church South. The trustees elected a new corps of competent teachers, and in September, 1857, the college began its distinctive work of Christian education under the presidency of Rev. W. G. Connor, a member of the conference. It enjoyed patronage from all parts of Georgia and from other States. Under the presidency of Rev. W. A. Harris, D. D., in 1859, it took the lead of church schools in sending out the first resident graduate class in the South, of which Mrs. Alice Culler Cobb, now a successful teacher in the Wesleyan Female College, was an honored member.

Well established in a career of enlarged and increasing usefulness, its work was arrested by a disastrous fire on the 28th of March, 1860. The college property, consisting of a handsome building, an ample

¹ White's Historical Collections of Georgia, pp. 651-2.

Catalogues for 1885-86 and 1886-87.

² See an act to incorporate the La Grange Female Institute, approved December 17, 1847. (Laws of Georgia, 1847, pp. 120-1.) The fifth section of the act says that the principal of the institute shall have power to confer all such honors, degrees, medals, and privileges as are usually conferred in colleges and universities. Name changed to La Grange Female College by act of December 26, 1851. (Laws of 1851-52, p. 312.)

³ According to Mr. White, who wrote in 1854, the college had averaged, for the six preceding years, two hundred and forty pupils. (Historical Collections of Georgia, p. 651.)

chemical and physical apparatus, a complete equipment of costly musical instruments, and well-selected libraries,¹ was then consumed. Nothing daunted by this calamity, the friends of the institution rallied with willing hearts and open purses to the work of rebuilding. Their labors were interrupted by the War, and it was owing to the energy and perseverance of Rev. James R. Mayson, late president of the college, that the building was put in a condition to be used. In the midst of the general depression and business prostration consequent upon the War, he succeeded in raising, principally from among the citizens of La Grange, ten thousand dollars, with which he was enabled to complete the work. After several years of prosperous service, he resigned his position in order to return to pastoral duties. The trustees then elected Rev. John W. Heidt, D. D., president. The present incumbent in this office is Rufus W. Smith, A. M. He is assisted by a faculty of nine teachers.

The course of study embraces a preparatory, a collegiate, a commercial, a music, and an art department. The collegiate department has Freshman, Sophomore, Junior, and Senior classes. It is intended to make the commercial department one of special utility. Book-keeping, commercial arithmetic, business correspondence, and penmanship are taught in this course. Music receives marked attention.

The alumnae of the La Grange Female College number over four hundred. The attendance during the session of 1886-87 consisted of one hundred and forty-six pupils.

The college occupies a very fine site, in full view of majestic landscapes. The late Doctor Sears, agent of the Peabody Fund, said of the situation, that he had travelled very extensively in Europe and America, visiting schools and colleges, but had never seen one equal to this for beauty and adaptation. The grounds are nine acres in extent, and, attractive by nature, are diversified with terraced groves and gardens. The main buildings are the college and the college home. On the second story of the college is the chapel, with a complement of music, art, society, and library rooms. This chapel "has been pronounced by distinguished visitors to be the finest audience-room in the South."²

The Irenian is the literary society of the La Grange Female College. It is accomplishing much good for the institution.

MADISON FEMALE COLLEGE.

This college was incorporated by an act approved by the General Assembly of Georgia January 26, 1850 (Laws of 1849-50, pp. 108-9). Mr. White, in his *Historical Collections of Georgia* (published in 1854),

¹ Mr. White (*Historical Collections of Georgia*, pp. 651-2) describes the college building as having few equals in the South. The principal edifice was of granite, one hundred and twenty feet long by sixty feet wide, and four stories high. Its cost was thirty-five thousand dollars. The entire investment for the outfit of the college had been seventy-five thousand dollars.

² See *Catalogue for 1886-87*, p. 28.

p. 566, alludes to the college as being "an institution of a recent date, numbering, according to the last catalogue, one hundred and seventy-one pupils. It is well supplied with philosophical and chemical instruments. * * * The course of study embraces every useful and ornamental branch."

The college was established by the Methodists, and held its last annual commencement, as the writer has been informed, in 1862. During the war between the States the main building of the institution subserved a purpose similar to that to which the Georgia Female College, likewise in Madison, was devoted. It was used as a hospital by the Confederate Government, and in this capacity continued to be occupied until its accidental destruction by fire, which occurred in 1864 and put an end to its existence.

The first president of the Madison Female College was Rev. Lucius L. Wittich, an experienced educator and a preacher of considerable mark. The second incumbent in the position was the Rev. Joseph H. Echols, while the third was the Rev. James L. Pierce, a brother of the late Bishop Pierce, and a man of fine literary attainments—under whose administration the institution achieved its greatest success. The last named of the presidents is still in life. Full faculties were associated with these officers, and among the departments represented in the curriculum were mathematics, natural philosophy, history, chemistry, Latin, Greek, belles-lettres, and music.

The college, as has been seen, was a chartered institution, granting diplomas and conferring degrees. At one time Dr. W. C. Bass, now president of Wesleyan Female College, and Dr. W. H. Felton, of Bartow County, a distinguished and influential member of the State Legislature, were numbered among its professors. A curriculum of high order was in force, and the educational advantages of the school are said to have been excellent. Fine apparatus was provided for the chairs of chemistry and natural philosophy, and the department of music received every attention. The faculty, as a general rule, comprised some eight or ten members, and the annual attendance upon the Female College averaged about one hundred and fifty pupils.

GEORGIA METHODIST FEMALE COLLEGE.¹

This institution is located in the town of Covington, Newton County. It was first erected by the people of the place for a female school of high order in 1851, and called the Southern Female College.²

TRANSFERRED TO THE MASONIC ORDER.

Transferred in the following year to the Grand Lodge of the Masonic fraternity in Georgia, a new charter was obtained for it, and its name

¹ White's Historical Collections of Georgia, p. 574.

Jane's Hand-Book of Georgia, p. 189.

Catalogue for 1866-67.

² See an act to incorporate the Southern Female College, located in the town of Covington, Newton County; approved December 3, 1851 (Laws of 1851-52, pp. 313-14).

was changed to Southern Masonic Female College.¹ We learn from Janes's Hand-Book (published in 1876) that the Grand Lodge of the State appointed the board of trustees for the college, of which the grand master was president; that it was the sole property of the fraternity, and was founded for the purpose of educating the female orphans of Masons; that it had a collegiate curriculum, and conferred a full baccalaureate degree upon its graduates. It had in 1876 an average attendance of ninety, and had graduated over three hundred and fifty up to that time. It was largely patronized by citizens who were not members of the Masonic order.

In 1882 this institution passed into the possession of the Methodists, and became the Georgia Methodist Female College. Under the present organization Rev. John T. McLauchlin, A. M., is president. He is assisted by five teachers. English, mathematics, natural science, ancient and modern languages, and history are studied throughout the college course. Instruction is also afforded in music and art. The enrolment of students for 1886-87 was about one hundred and forty.

ANDREW FEMALE COLLEGE.²

This school, designed for the higher education of women, was established about 1854.³ It is located at Cuthbert, Randolph County, and is the property of the Methodist Episcopal Church South. Its course of study, covering five years, is conducted by a faculty of competent instructors, of whom the Rev. Howard W. Key, A. M., a ripe scholar, an experienced teacher, and an admirable disciplinarian, is the president. The grounds, several acres in extent, have been rendered more attractive by summer-houses, trellises, and other artificial contrivances. The main college building is in the form of a Roman cross, fronting one hundred feet, with spacious lecture rooms at either end, and enclosing in the centre a chapel, forty-five feet in width and one hundred and twenty-five in depth, the whole being well ventilated and lighted.

There was an attendance at the college of one hundred and thirty-five students during the session of 1886-87.

DALTON FEMALE COLLEGE.

This institution was founded in 1872, and is now in the sixteenth year of its existence. In 1873 it received a charter, and in the following year graduated its first class of four members. The first president of the Dalton Female College was the Rev. Mr. Rogers, whose term of service extended over a period of seven years. He was succeeded by Prof. R. W. Smith, who held the position for five years. Upon the

¹ Act of February 14, 1854 (Acts of 1853-54, pp. 130-31). Sections IX, X, and XI relate to the institution; and in pursuance of their provisions the Grand Lodge appointed trustees for the Southern Masonic Female College.

² Henderson's Commonwealth of Georgia, p. 278.

Catalogue for 1886-87.

³ Act of incorporation, approved January 15, 1854. (Laws of 1853-54, p. 116.)

resignation of the latter in 1885, the present incumbent, John A. Jones, A. M., was called to the presidency of the college.

The college is under the auspices of the Methodist Episcopal Church South. Its history has been a quiet, unostentatious one, yet remarkably successful, considering the means at its command.

The college building is a two-story brick structure, consisting of seven spacious, comfortable, and conveniently arranged school-rooms, beside the chapel. The college has, connected with it and located near it, a large and well-equipped boarding department. The whole property is worth about fifteen thousand dollars.

The college curriculum, requiring from ten to twelve years for its completion,¹ is about as full and extensive as that of most of the female seminaries of the country. There are eight teachers in the faculty, three of whom superintend the music department. The alumnae of the institution number almost one hundred. The last (1886-87) register showed an attendance of one hundred and eighty-two pupils, one hundred and sixty-nine of whom were in the literary, fifty-three in the music, and twenty-nine in the art department.²

THE METHODIST COLLEGE.³

This institution, which is situated at Gainesville, Hall County, having been chartered in April, 1881, with full college powers, was established for the higher education of young women. Its officers are a president, secretary, and faculty, supervised by an incorporated board of directors, and visited by a special board, appointed by the North Georgia Conference of the Methodist Episcopal Church South, under whose fostering care the college is administered.

Beside the preparatory and collegiate departments, a piano school, with Freshman, Sophomore, Junior, and Senior classes, is attached to the college. The art and ornamental branches, also, receive attention. Inclusive of the Rev. Charles B. La Hatte, A. M., president of the college, the present faculty consists of eight teachers. The 1885-86 catalogue gave the college an attendance of seventy-nine pupils. The first class graduated in 1883.

ROMAN CATHOLIC INSTITUTIONS.

PIO NONO COLLEGE.⁴

This college, the only one which the Roman Catholic denomination has ever owned, or of which it has ever had the supervision in Georgia, is now extinct. It was located at Macon, and the Rt. Rev. William H.

¹ This includes college and sub-college classes and the preparatory department.

² For our facts in this case we are chiefly indebted to a letter from President Jones, dated November 22, 1887.

³ Henderson's Commonwealth of Georgia, pp. 279-80.

Catalogue for 1885-86.

⁴ Jones's Hand-Book of Georgia, p. 187.

Butler's History of Macon, pp. 302-3.

Gross, D. D., bishop of Savannah, to whose efforts since his consecration in 1873 it principally owed its origin, laid its corner-stone in May, 1874. Soon after his entrance upon his new duties, Bishop Gross determined to erect a college within his diocese, and was cordially aided by members of his own denomination and many who were not Catholics. The college building was commenced in the spring of 1874, and was completed during the following October. It was a handsome brick structure, one hundred and seventy-five feet in length, sixty-five in width, and five stories high, and cost fifty thousand dollars. On the 28th of February, 1876, the institution was chartered. At that time, we are told, it had a regular college curriculum, including classical and scientific courses. Surveying, engineering, book-keeping, and commercial law were taught. There was also a theological course.

Ten professors and tutors, of whom Rev. C. P. Gaboury was president, constituted the faculty. The attendance during the session ending June, 1876, embraced eighty-six students. In September of the ensuing year the college was entirely reorganized, the Rt. Rev. Bishop Gross himself assuming the presidency. This position he held until 1883,¹ when Rev. H. J. McNally succeeded him. The latter remained in office only one year; and in 1884 the last president, V. Rev. L. Bazin, was installed. His term of service expired with the life of the institution, in August, 1886.

BECOMES A JESUIT NOVITIATE.

The building and property² were then transferred to the Jesuits, and what was once known as Pio Nono College has become the Jesuit novitiate, and is now regarded as a training school for those who desire to enter the priesthood of that order.

¹ It should be stated that the functions of the bishop were more in the nature of a general supervisor, Rev. J. W. Daley doing most of the administrative work.

² A library, museum, and chemical laboratory were possessed by the college.

CHAPTER VI.

MISCELLANEOUS COLLEGES AND INSTITUTIONS IN GEORGIA.

GRIFFIN FEMALE COLLEGE.¹

Griffin Female College was incorporated in 1848, organized in the following year, and graduated its first class in 1850. Though most of its pupils come from Georgia, its alumnæ are found in many parts of the South. The college occupies one of the most beautiful groves in the city of Griffin, Spalding County. The system of instruction is thorough, provision being made for six courses of study; viz, primary, preparatory, academic, collegiate, music, and art. The school of instrumental and vocal music is especially fine. The college outfit consists of a library of fifteen hundred volumes, a fair philosophical and chemical apparatus, and a cabinet of minerals. The faculty, of which Mrs. A. C. Winters is at present the head, numbers four teachers.

GEORGIA MILITARY INSTITUTE.

The list of institutions of higher education in Georgia would be incomplete without a mention of the Georgia Military Institute. This school was located within a short distance of Marietta, Cobb County. Originating under the direction of Col. A. V. Brumby, and first organized by him in 1851, its first session opened on July 10th of that year with only seven cadets, but the attendance swelled to twenty-eight before the term ended. "Since that time," says Mr. White, writing in 1854, "the number has steadily and rapidly increased at each session up to the present time; and now, having completed but two years of its history, it numbers one hundred and twenty cadets, five professors, and one assistant professor."²

At the instance of Colonel Brumby, in 1851, a joint stock company had been formed, and the institute chartered as a military college un-

¹ Henderson's Commonwealth of Georgia, pp. 281-2.

Catalogue for 1882-83.

Circulars for 1886-87 and 1887-88.

² Historical Collections of Georgia, p. 401.

still the characteristic feature of the institution, * * * and the simple, yet neat and substantial mode of Bowdon life is now proverbial." Bowdon, the seat of this college, is located in the western part of Carroll County, Georgia, a few miles from the Alabama line.

Bowdon College favors the joint education of the sexes. It was one of the first institutions in the State to pursue this method. In 1872 it opened its doors to young ladies on equal terms with young men, and has found "that the advantages of co-education far exceed the disadvantages; and by diligence and watchful care the evils of the system may be avoided." Sixty-five of the one hundred and sixty-nine pupils in attendance during the session of 1886-87 were females, and five of the six members of the Senior class for that year were young women.

Beside the collegiate or regular course of study, there is a scientific and also an engineering course. These differ from the collegiate course in substituting for the classics French, and a more thorough and critical course in the natural sciences and applied mathematics. Upon those who complete these courses the degrees of A. B., B. S., and C. E. are severally conferred.

Rev. F. H. M. Henderson, D. D., is president of the institution. He is assisted by six teachers.

LUCY COBB INSTITUTE.

In 1857 General Thomas R. R. Cobb set on foot a movement to establish a girls' school at Athens, in Clark County. This effort on his part resulted in the erection, by a stock company, of a handsome four-story building in one of the best neighborhoods of the city. Just as the edifice was nearing its completion, General Cobb's favorite child, a girl of fourteen, died. In compliment to her memory, and in appreciation of her father's devotion, the board of trustees¹ named the school the Lucy Cobb Institute.

The institute was opened in 1858, well furnished both in its boarding and literary departments. Mr. Wright, a Northern gentleman, was its first principal. He conducted the school very satisfactorily until the commencement of the Civil War, when he returned to his people, and was succeeded in the position by the Misses Kay and Ferris. They were followed by Mr. Müller. Then Madame Sosnowski assumed charge, and after her, Doctor Jacobs. In 1871 Mrs. Wright² was elected principal. She "found the school in a languishing condition, the previous term having closed with one boarder and fourteen day scholars," and "without a curriculum or charter." She accordingly made application

¹ By an act to incorporate the Lucy Cobb Institute for the education of young ladies, in the town of Athens, approved December 2, 1859 (Laws of 1859, p. 83), Henry Hull, Jr., John H. Newton, Henry R. J. Long, Stephen Thomas, and Thomas R. R. Cobb, and their successors in office, were constituted the board of trustees of the school.

² She is now Mrs. A. E. Cox, and is principal of the Forest Hill Institute, in Columbia County.



LUCY COBB INSTITUTE, ATHENS.

to the trustees to have the institute chartered. They promptly acceded to her request, and on July 6, 1872, five young ladies received diplomas.¹ The numbers increased every year until, in 1880, the date of Mrs. Wright's resignation, there was a graduating class of fifteen.

Miss Millie Rutherford, the successor of Mrs. Wright, has since conducted the school with great success. She is assisted by a corps of fifteen teachers, several of whom hold professorial chairs in the University of Georgia. Prominent among the lecturers were the late honored chancellor of the University, Rev. Dr. P. H. Mell, and Dr. A. A. Lipscomb, ex-chancellor of the same and emeritus professor of Vanderbilt University (Tennessee).

The faculty of instruction has been organized into six schools; viz, schools of science, languages, mathematics, music, art, and English. The course of study is both academic and collegiate. The former is subdivided into First Academic and Collegiate; the latter into Freshman, Sophomore, Junior, Senior, and Graduate classes. "Only young ladies holding a diploma of this school, or one of the same standard, can enter the Graduate class, which is intended to supplement the Senior course in all high schools and colleges." The regular college course embraces mental and moral philosophy, ancient and modern history, Latin, mathematics, the natural sciences, physiology, general literature, and book-keeping. The art department is under the direction of Miss Jennie Smith, a graduate of the institution, and a lady of unusual attainments.

SENEY-STOVALL CHAPEL.

It was chiefly through the exertions of one of its alumnae that the Lucy Cobb Institute became possessed of its beautiful chapel. In 1881 Miss Nellie Stovall, of Athens, wrote to Mr. George I. Seney, of Brooklyn, N. Y., a letter in which she represented her *alma mater* as an object worthy of his bounty. The result of this graceful appeal was the handsome edifice to the left of the main building, known as the "Seney-Stovall Chapel." Mr. Seney erected it at a cost of ten thousand dollars. He has also placed in it a large pipe organ, valued at three thousand dollars. The chapel is octagonal in form, is tastefully decorated within, and is altogether quite a gem of its sort. Another noteworthy feature of the institution is its boarding department. We conclude with the quotation of an opinion expressed by a writer in the *Atlanta Constitution* of October 27, 1885, in regard to the excellence of the system which regulates this branch of the institute. He says:

"I have visited and inspected the methods of most of the prominent schools of this kind in this country, and never have I seen one that comes as near as it does to supplying all the requirements which I consider should enter into the organization of a school to which we are to intrust the care of our daughters. It is like a perfect home, and, under the care of its affectionate and attentive teachers, every young lady in

¹ It should be stated that before 1872 no diplomas had been conferred by the school.

attendance becomes one of a circle which partakes more of the family hearth-stone than of strangers bound together by the mere ties of association and collegiate discipline."

MARTIN INSTITUTE.

The school now known as Martin Institute was incorporated by act of the Legislature, November 20, 1818, under the name of Jackson County Academy.¹ It was afterward called the Jefferson Academy.

In December, 1859, the charter was amended and the name changed to Martin Institute, in honor of its benefactor, William D. Martin, through whose munificence the institution had been liberally endowed.² During the long period that has since elapsed the school has been in successful operation, the number of students in attendance seldom being less than one hundred, and often nearer two hundred.

Prior to the Civil War several distinguished teachers were at various times connected with this institution. Among them was Dr. Gustavus J. Orr, late State School Commissioner. Under him the present principal, Prof. John W. Glenn, and one of the teachers were instructed. In 1869 Professor Glenn came from the East Alabama Male College, took charge of the institute, and extended its influence to the neighboring States.

In 1874 the charter of the Martin Institute was enlarged so as to confer upon it all the rights granted to other colleges. These rights it has never exercised except in graduating classes in the female department. It has turned its attention unpretentiously to preparing young men for colleges of higher claims, if not better advantages.

Classes of young ladies were graduated regularly until 1882, when Principal Glenn was called to the University of Tennessee, to take charge of the department of agriculture in that institution. From 1870 to 1882 Martin Institute enjoyed a liberal patronage, the number of scholars ranging from one hundred and twenty to two hundred and seventy. About October, 1883, the old building was burned down. The present structure was not completed until two or three years later. Prof. Benjamin T. Hunter, from the Agricultural School at Cuthbert, Ga., became principal of the institute in 1885-86. Upon his resignation, in the fall of 1887, Professor Glenn resumed his old place, which he still retains. He is assisted by a corps of five teachers.

The curriculum of Martin Institute is similar to that of other male colleges, embracing the usual English, classical, and mathematical studies, together with a practical course in the physical sciences and

¹Lamar's Compilations, p. 20.

²See Section II of act of December 9, 1859 (Laws of 1859, pp. 77-9). From the preamble of this act it appears that Mr. Martin had given by will to the trustees of the Jefferson Academy and their successors in office, one hundred and fifty shares of his stock of the Georgia Railroad and Banking Company, the preamble interpreting the terms "Trustees of the Jefferson Academy" as none other than the institution incorporated as the Trustees of the Jackson County Academy.

mechanical drawing. It has also business and normal courses. The standard of scholarship is high, especially in the department designed for young ladies. In the latter case the requirements are greater than in most of the female colleges.

In Martin Institute, as originally in Jackson County Academy and in Jefferson Academy, there exists co-education of the sexes. By reference to the catalogue for 1885-86, it will be perceived that of the one hundred and fifty-two students in attendance during that session, eighty were males and seventy-two were females.

This institute is located in the town of Jefferson, the county seat of Jackson County, nearly midway between Athens and Gainesville. The situation is elevated, overlooking the town, and commanding a beautiful and extensive view of the surrounding country.

The institute building was completed in 1886, and equipped at a cost of more than fifteen thousand dollars. The structure is large and imposing. It is built of brick, is slate-covered, and is well arranged in its appointments. The first floor contains recitation rooms, with seating capacity for nearly three hundred students, and ample blackboard facilities for every school purpose. A spacious chapel, approached by two broad stair-ways in front and one in the rear, together with vestibule, stage, and music rooms, occupies the entire second story. The building is surmounted with a belfry, provided with a sweet-toned bell of more than a thousand pounds' weight, the peals of which are distinctly heard at a distance of several miles.

HOME SCHOOL FOR YOUNG LADIES.¹

In the year 1865 two institutions for the higher education of young ladies were established in Georgia—one, which is the subject of this section, at Athens; the other, presently to be considered, in the city of Atlanta. The Home School was founded by Madame Sophie Sosnowski, a lady of German birth, of long residence in this country, and distinguished for her high character, fine culture, and ability as a teacher. She came to Athens from Columbia, S. C., whence the fortune of war had driven her.

This institution was founded with a view to meet a real want felt by many parents in the selection of a school for their daughters, a want which is implied in its name, and which Madame Sosnowski's long experience had made plain to her, namely, of a school that should combine the advantages and discipline of a real home with those of a school for mental training; one that would command the personal attention and influence of the principal in behalf of each pupil, and avoid the rather casual training and promiscuous association of a large boarding school or college. This school was never intended for more than a limited number of scholars, who might be, at all times, under the eye of the

¹ For my information in regard to this school, I am in the main indebted to a sketch prepared by Prof. Charles Morris, of the University of Georgia.

teachers, and who, while enjoying the opportunities of more special instruction, should, at the same time, form a home circle with the principal as its centre.

In this point of view, the school has been very successful. The attendance has been good, and the plan of the worthy madame, the projector and organizer of the institution, has been steadily and faithfully carried out.

The Home School is under the management of Madame Sosnowski, assisted by her daughter, Miss Caroline Sosnowski, and an efficient corps of teachers. Among them are the accomplished grand-daughters of the principal, one of whom, Miss Ida Schaller, a thorough musician, having been well instructed in the Boston Conservatory of Music, has charge of the musical department. Excellent advantages in drawing and painting are afforded by Miss C. Sosnowski, who is herself a skilful artist.

The school offers a full course of instruction in the English branches, history, French and Latin, mathematics and physics, and in drawing, painting, and music, both vocal and instrumental.

ATLANTA FEMALE INSTITUTE AND COLLEGE OF MUSIC.

This school was organized by Mrs. J. W. Ballard, its present principal, in 1865, and is located at Atlanta. In 1882¹ it received a charter containing full power for conferring college diplomas. The faculty of instructors and lecturers, independent of the principal, number thirteen, all of whom are specialists in their several branches. The institute embraces a literary department, a department of modern languages, an art department, and a music department.

The last mentioned department constitutes, perhaps, the greatest attraction of the school. Mr. Constantin Sternberg, of repute as a pianist, is the general musical director. Two other teachers are associated with him in the department.

The course in the art department is very thorough. It embraces charcoal and pencil drawing from casts, still life, and nature; crayon portraiture; painting in oil and water colors; china painting; silk, velvet, and plush painting; lustra painting; brass hammering; and all the decorative and ornamental branches.

Primary, intermediate, academic, and collegiate departments are all represented in the general curriculum. The literary and classical training, as afforded in the collegiate course, is excellent, French, Latin, mathematics, and the natural sciences entering into and forming the subjects of every one of the classes. Instruction in elocution is also imparted.

According to the catalogue of 1886-87, the attendance of students on the various schools and departments of the Atlanta Female Institute,

¹ See Report of the Commissioner of Education for 1885-86, p. 371.

including the kindergarten, which has been established there, is one hundred and forty-six.

The new institute building is said to be the finest in the city of Atlanta, and is well supplied with art,¹ musical, chemical, and physical apparatus.

YOUNG FEMALE COLLEGE.²

Major E. R. Young, a wealthy planter of Thomas County, died in 1860, leaving a legacy of thirty thousand dollars to be used in the establishment and support of an institution for the education of females, to be known as "Young Female College," and appointing seven trustees³ of his own selection to carry out his wishes. His will was contested, and no decision was had upon it until 1868.

The board of trustees organized June 23, 1866, when Mr. Thomas Jones was chosen president and A. H. Hansell, secretary.

In February, 1868, the board purchased the residence of Mr. James Kirksey, with fifteen acres of land attached, and engaged Mr. John E. Baker, formerly of Liberty County, to take charge of the institution, which was opened that month. As soon as it could be conveniently done, a handsome chapel, with recitation and study rooms, was built, and the college entered upon a prosperous course. While changes have from time to time occurred in the faculty, Mr. Baker has been continued as its head from the beginning, giving striking evidence of his faithfulness and fitness for the position. He is assisted by six teachers. The college shows an attendance, from year to year, of over one hundred scholars⁴ and the house of the president, who lives at the college, is full of boarding pupils from the adjoining sections of Georgia and Florida. The course of study embraces five classes; viz, First, Second, Sophomore, Junior, and Senior.

Young Female College has been largely instrumental in helping to build up the little city of Thomasville, in which it is located.

BUTLER FEMALE COLLEGE AND MALE INSTITUTE.⁵

This institution, situated in Butler, Taylor County, was organized under the name of "Johnston Institute," in the year 1872. Through the action of the stockholders in 1875, a charter was obtained and the name was changed to "Butler Female College and Male Institute." The

¹ There is, among other things, a large and choice collection of art models, numbering over five thousand, the property of Mr. William Lycett, the professor of art.

² Henderson's Commonwealth of Georgia, pp. 277-8.

Catalogue for 1886-87.

³ The trustees named in Major Young's will were Messrs. Thomas Jones, James T. Hayes, David S. Brannon, William J. Young, James L. Seward, A. T. McIntyre, and A. H. Hansell.

⁴ The catalogue for 1886-87 gives an enrolment of one hundred and twenty-four.

⁵ Henderson's Commonwealth of Georgia, p. 278.

Catalogue for 1885-86.

original building, which cost about ten thousand dollars, was consumed by fire in 1882. It was rebuilt upon an improved plan and supplied with suitable furniture. In pursuance of an act of the Legislature of Georgia, the town of Butler appropriated to this college certain sums of money annually accruing from various sources, and in this way tuition has been so far reduced as to make it a comparatively free school.

The course of instruction includes primary, preparatory, and collegiate departments. In the collegiate department both classical and scientific courses are open for the choice of the students. Those completing these courses receive the respective degrees of bachelor of arts and bachelor of science. The catalogue for 1885-86 gives the college an attendance for that session of ninety males and eighty-six females.

The president of the faculty is P. E. Davant, A. M., who has three assistants.

GAINESVILLE COLLEGE.

This is likewise a co-educating school, and was regularly chartered in 1875. Its curriculum consists of primary, kindergarten, preparatory, and collegiate departments. Beside the bachelor of arts or regular college course, there is a licentiate instruction course, which differs from the other only in the fact that the Senior studies are omitted. Music¹ and art receive attention in the college. The faculty is at present composed of four teachers, of whom R. E. Mitchell, A. B., is the president. The Annual Register of 1886-87 shows an attendance of two hundred and one pupils of both sexes.

WEST GEORGIA AGRICULTURAL AND MECHANICAL COLLEGE.

The West Georgia Agricultural and Mechanical College, situated in the town of Hamilton, Harris County, was incorporated in the fall of 1881. In the following year efforts were made to effect a union between it and the University of Georgia, to the end that it might become a branch college of the latter. The attempt, however, failed, and the institution remains separate from, and in nowise connected with, the State University.

Capt. John W. Dozier is at the head of the school. He has four assistant teachers. The course of instruction embraces primary, academic, and collegiate departments. Music is also taught. The enrolment of students (male and female) for the session of 1886-87 was one hundred and six.

The college building, comprising six study rooms, with a commodious chapel and an ante-room on the second floor, was completed in 1884 at a cost of about ten thousand dollars.

SOUTH GEORGIA MALE AND FEMALE COLLEGE.

The seat of this college, which was established about 1882, is at Dawson, in Terrell County. The faculty consists of seven members, Morgan

¹ The chair of music is at present vacant.

L. Parker, A. B., being president. There are literary, music, art, and business departments. The literary department is divided into three schools, viz, primary, preparatory, and collegiate. In addition to the regular college classes, there is a post-graduate class. The attendance during 1886-87 was one hundred and six males and seventy-six females.

OTHER COLLEGES.

In addition to the colleges already considered may be mentioned the Middle Georgia College, at Jonesborough, the county seat of Clayton County; Washington Seminary in Atlanta, which was founded by Miss Lola Washington about 1878, is presided over by Mrs. Baylor Stewart, and numbers among its faculty Mr. Alfredo Barili, a nephew of the celebrated Adelina Patti, and a musician of some note; Elberton Female Collegiate Institute, in Elbert County; Bradwell Institute, at Hinesville, in Liberty County; and the Agricultural College, at Cuthbert, in Randolph County, the latter at present forming a part of the State University at Athens.¹

BUSINESS SCHOOLS IN GEORGIA.

MOORE'S BUSINESS UNIVERSITY.—Four principal commercial colleges have been established in the State, two at Atlanta, one at Macon, and one at Augusta. Of these, Moore's Business University, located in the city of Atlanta, is the oldest and, perhaps, the best known. Founded by Prof. B. F. Moore, at Savannah, Ga., in 1858, and opened in October of that year, Moore's Commercial Institute was conducted with marked success until the inception of the War in 1861. Its operations then ceased. In 1862 President Moore moved to Atlanta, where, six years later, viz, in October, 1868, the present institution was reopened, commencing its work with nine students. From that small beginning the school has increased so rapidly that it now numbers on its roll nearly four thousand graduates. About three hundred students are in annual attendance. "Moore's Business University is devoted to the education of young and middle-aged men and women in the commercial branches, and in instructing them in technical knowledge, by qualifying them for transactions of business, and the proper management of business affairs." The school is a completely organized community, with its necessary adjuncts, banking houses, and insurance, transportation, and other agencies. The system of teaching is eminently practical, and embodies an actual business training. Among the subjects embraced in the curriculum are single and double entry book-keeping, plain and ornamental penmanship, commercial arithmetic, merchandising, political economy, actual business, business correspondence, and mercantile law.

¹ The school at Cuthbert, as has been intimated above, has become once more (1889) a member of the State University system, and consequently falls under the general description of the "Branch Colleges."

MACON COMMERCIAL COLLEGE.—This institution was founded from 1881. Its founder was the present principal, Prof. W. Mc [unclear]. "I opened this school," he says,¹ "in connection with my own [unclear] as a professional accountant, and have sought rather to give a thorough training to a few students than a smattering to a larger number, and have had ample proof of the truth of my theory of conducting such schools." Beside penmanship, business arithmetic, correspondence, bill-making, and general business routine, peculiar stress is laid upon the different details of book-keeping and accounts, "accounting being recognized and taught as a science," and, by reason of the excellent facilities afforded, constituting an important department in the college. Instruction is also given in stenography and type-writing. A special feature of the Macon Commercial College is its department for the graduation of females in book-keeping and accounts.

The other two commercial colleges to which we have alluded are Osborne's Business College, at Augusta, and Goldsmith and Sullivan's School of Business, at Atlanta. The former has been in operation since January, 1882, and was chartered in 1886.²

LITERARY INSTITUTIONS—THE GEORGIA HISTORICAL SOCIETY.

Among the institutions of higher education in the State we should not omit to mention one which, aside from its importance as illustrating a phase in the development of the country, has exerted a truly potent influence in the departments of literature and original research. We refer to the Georgia Historical Society, at Savannah. This excellent organization dates from 1839. For many years previous, the need for some such association in the city of Savannah had been felt and acknowledged, but it was not until April, 1839, that any definite action was taken in regard to the subject. Then the Rev. William B. Stevens, Israel K. Tefft, Esq., and Dr. Richard D. Arnold addressed a circular to a number of gentlemen whom they thought most likely to interest themselves in the design, inviting them to attend a meeting for the purpose of forming an historical society. The convocation was accordingly held, and a society was formed. The officers "selected to give nascent tone, character, and impulse to the institution," were John McPherson

¹ In a letter dated January 23, 1888.

² See Report of the Commissioner of Education for 1885-86, p. 614.

³ White's Historical Collections of Georgia, p. 315.

The Georgia Historical Society: Its Founders, Patrons, and Friends. Anniversary address delivered in Hodgson Hall on the 14th of February, 1881, by Charles C. Jones, Jr., LL. D. Savannah, Ga., 1881. Pp. 40.

Historical Record of the City of Savannah. Savannah, 1869. Pp. 160-1.

Address of Richard D. Arnold, M. D., on the organization of the Georgia Historical Society and of the Savannah Library Association, delivered July 24, 1871. (Collections of the Georgia Historical Society, Vol. III, pp. 415-28. Savannah, 1873.)

Proceedings of the Dedication of Hodgson Hall, by the Georgia Historical Society, on the occasion of its thirty-seventh anniversary, February 14, 1876. Savannah, Ga., 1876. Pp. 29.

Berrien, of national reputation, president; James Moore Wayne, remembered as an Associate Justice of the Supreme Court of the United States, vice-president; Matthew Hall McAllister, vice-president; Israel K. Tefft, whom Colonel Jones¹ describes as the *fons et origo* of the society, corresponding secretary; George W. Hunter, treasurer; Henry K. Preston, librarian; William Thorne Williams, Charles S. Henry, John C. Nicoll, William Law, Robert M. Charlton, Alexander A. Smets, William Bacon Stevens, and Richard D. Arnold, directors.

Under the guidance of these its first officers—than whom, we are assured,² from out the entire circuit of the community none more competent or trustworthy could have been chosen—the Georgia Historical Society entered upon a career of usefulness.

In December, 1839,³ the society was chartered; and its avowed object, as revealed in the preamble⁴ of the act incorporating it, was the collection, preservation, and diffusion of information relating to the history of Georgia in all its various departments. To that end its officers and members, with a zeal worthy of all commendation, by correspondence, circular, contribution, purchase, and petition, concentrated as rapidly as they could in the library of the institution all printed and manuscript matter within the range of present possibility.⁵ "So earnest," says Colonel Jones,⁶ "was the society in the prosecution of its mission, and so eager to offer palpable evidence of its vitality, and to assert a right to honorable companionship in the sisterhood of kindred institutions, that in the second year of its existence it printed its first volume of collections." It was a valuable and interesting publication; and "it is not an exaggeration to affirm," continues the same author,⁶ "that this first contribution of our cherished society will compare favorably with the transactions of any kindred society within the wide borders of this land." The second volume, like unto the first in historical value and genuine interest, was given to the public two years afterward; and in 1848 appeared part first of the third volume of the Georgia Historical Collections.

As early as March, 1841, the society invited Dr. William Bacon Stevens to undertake, under its auspices, the preparation of a new and complete history of Georgia. Liberal aid was extended to him in the prosecution of this most important labor, which resulted in the publication of two octavo volumes, one in 1847 and the other in 1859. The

¹ Colonel Jones's Address, p. 7.

² *Ibid.*, p. 8.

³ See act of December 19 (Laws of 1839, pp. 132-4).

⁴ "Whereas the members of a society instituted in the city of Savannah, for the purpose of collecting, preserving, and diffusing information relating to the history of the State of Georgia in particular, and of American history generally, have applied for an act of incorporation * * * Be it enacted," etc.

⁵ Colonel Jones's Address, pp. 12-13.

⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 13.

author concludes his history with the adoption of the Constitution of 1798.

For nearly eight years after its organization the association possessed no building of its own, but through the courtesy of the Savannah Library Society was permitted to occupy its rooms as a place of convocation. In 1847 there occurred a practical consolidation of these institutions, and two years subsequently the Georgia Historical Society found a convenient abiding place in the edifice which had been erected for its accommodation on Bryan Street, opposite the Bank of the State of Georgia. The library of the Savannah Library Society was merged into that of the Georgia Historical Society, and thus were the literary attractions of the latter enhanced by the addition of some twenty-five hundred volumes.¹

Through the generosity of one of Savannah's distinguished sons, Dr. James P. Screven, a liability incurred in the erection of its hall was, in 1852, discharged, and the society liberated from debt.

During the next few years little of special moment transpired in the proceedings of the society. Then ensued the Civil War, which necessitated an entire suspension of all its operations, and well-nigh put an end to the organization itself.

Soon, however, after the termination of hostilities, under the encouragement of its then president, the Right Rev. Stephen Elliott, D. D., of blessed memory, the society revived, and entered upon a career of activity and usefulness. The impetus then given to its membership, its deliberations, and its exertions, was continued during the subsequent administrations of the Hon. Edward J. Harden, Mr. George Wymberley-Jones De Renne, Doctor Charters, and the Hon. Henry R. Jackson.

In 1871 the society published an interesting *brochure*, entitled *An Authentic Account of the Origin, Mystery, and Explanation of Hon. Richard Henry Wilde's Alleged Plagiarism of the Lament of the Captive*. Two years afterward, through the liberality of Mr. George Wymberley Jones, the society was enabled to give to the public the third volume of its historical collections, embracing letters from General Oglethorpe to the trustees of the colony and others, from October, 1735, to August, 1744; a Report of Sir James Wright to Lord Dartmouth on the condition of the colony, dated September 20, 1773; letters from Governor Sir James Wright to the Earl Dartmouth and Lord George Germain, secretaries of state for America, from August 24, 1774, to February 16, 1782; an anniversary address of Col. Charles C. Jones, Jr., on Brigadier-General Count Casimir Pulaski; and an address by Dr. Richard D. Arnold, on the Organization of the Georgia Historical Society and of the Savannah Library Association.

In 1878 the society, the cost of the publication being defrayed by Mr. De Renne, printed the fourth volume of its Collections, consisting of

¹ Colonel Jones's Address, pp. 15-16.

"The Dead Towns of Georgia," by Col. Charles C. Jones, Jr., LL. D., and "Itinerant Observations in America," reprinted from the London Magazine.

On the occasion of the celebration of the thirty-seventh anniversary of the organization of the society, possession was formally delivered of Hodgson Hall, the present beautiful and commodious home of the society, a gift from Miss Telfair and Mrs. Hodgson.

Here the society, with its twelve thousand volumes, lives and prospers, exerting a literary and refining influence, and conserving all memories appertaining to the history of Georgia.

THE TELFAIR ACADEMY OF ARTS AND SCIENCES.¹

Through the munificence of Miss Mary Telfair, the daughter of Governor Edward Telfair, the Telfair Mansion in Savannah, with all the furniture, fixtures, books, pictures, statuary, and works of art, was bequeathed to the Georgia Historical Society, to be erected into an academy of arts and sciences.

For the maintenance of this institution she bequeathed one thousand shares of the capital stock of the Augusta and Savannah Railroad.

Under the auspices of the Georgia Historical Society, and in pursuance of the charitable intent of this noble woman, wonderful progress has been made in the erection of the Academy of Arts and Sciences, in filling its halls with works of value, and in making it what its founder designed it to be, a school for the development of a higher education in art.

This academy, which is the only one of the sort in Georgia, is under the direction of Mr. Carl N. Brandt, an artist of considerable reputation.²

¹ See the fourteenth item in the will of Miss Mary Telfair, who died in June, 1875.

² A description of the academy, and an account of the work which has been performed by Mr. Brandt in bringing the institution to its present state of usefulness, is given in Harper's Monthly Magazine for January, 1888.

CHAPTER VII.

MEDICAL INSTITUTIONS.)

THE MEDICAL COLLEGE OF GEORGIA.¹

This institution is the oldest of its kind in the State, having been in active operation ever since 1829. The act establishing and incorporating the "Medical Academy of Georgia" was approved December 20, 1828.² By that act a board of twenty-four trustees was appointed for the government of the academy, to whom, under certain conditions, the authority was given to confer the degree of bachelor of medicine upon its graduates.

Prominent among the members of this board was Dr. Milton Antony, who was the soul and spirit of the movement to which the academy owed its origin, and who has rightly been designated as its founder. As early as the year 1827 Doctor Antony proposed the establishment of a medical school in the city of Augusta. "Such an institution presented itself to his mind as desirable and all-important. The scheme, although deemed by many impracticable, seemed to him simple and feasible. His indomitable spirit prompted him to leave no efforts untried in the accomplishment of his favorite design; while his sanguine heart never dreamed of defeat. He was devotedly attached to his profession, in which he ever held distinguished rank. * * * His desire was to assist in the perfection of his favorite science; and, in the accomplishment of his ends, he regarded nothing more important than the proper and thorough education of its young disciples."³

The first meeting of the board of trustees of the Medical Academy was held March 2, 1829, and on May 17 of the following year, the name of

¹ See Georgia Gazetteer for 1837, pp. 196-7.

Georgia Illustrated, etc., by William C. Richards, Penfield, Ga., 1842. Pp. 41-4.

White's Statistics of Georgia. Pp. 81-2.

Lewis's Report on Public Education, etc., Milledgeville, Ga., 1860. Pp. 115, 137.

Sixth Annual Report of the State Board of Health of Illinois, Appendix A: Conspectus of the Medical Colleges of America, pp. 13-19, Springfield, Ill., 1884.

Henderson's Commonwealth of Georgia, etc. Atlanta, Ga., 1885. Page 282.

Catalogue for 1886-87.

² Dawson's Compilations, pp. 196-7.

³ Georgia Illustrated, pp. 41-2.



MEDICAL COLLEGE OF GEORGIA.



the institution having in the meanwhile been changed,¹ it was regularly organized as the board of trustees of the Medical Institute of Georgia.

From the Legislature of 1833 the institute received a donation of ten thousand dollars,² and from the City Council of Augusta five thousand dollars more, by guaranteeing medicines and medical services to the city hospital for ten years. With the fifteen thousand dollars thus obtained, the trustees erected "their beautiful Grecian-Doric structure which," wrote one of the professors³ in 1842, "while exteriorly adding to the beauty of the city, is, in its interior arrangements, unequalled, for the purposes of a medical college, by any edifice in our country."⁴

With the exception of twenty-five thousand dollars which the Legislature afterward gave the Medical College, the moneys above referred to constitute the only pecuniary aid from without, so far as the writer can learn, which this institution has ever received. Hence it may be said to have been, almost from its inception, self-supporting. Certain it is, that upon the seven thousand dollars individually contributed by Doctors Antony, Ford, Hoxey, Crawford, Banks, Jones, and Garvin, of the board of trustees in 1829, the school prior to the receipt of those funds mainly subsisted.

The act by which the State, in 1833, appropriated ten thousand dollars "for the use and benefit of the institute," contained a provision changing its name⁵ to that which it has ever since retained, viz, *The Medical College of Georgia*. The college was organized with Doctors Antony, Ford, J. A. Eve, Paul F. Eve, John Dent, and L. A. Dugas in its respective chairs. Early in the spring of 1834 the faculty raised upon its own responsibility the sum of ten thousand dollars, and dispatched to Europe one of the professors, to purchase an anatomical museum, chemical apparatus, a surgical cabinet, etc., for the use of the college.

A second application for pecuniary aid was made by the trustees in 1835, which was so far successful that the State generously turned over to the college all her interest in the premium resulting from the sale of the increased stock of the Bank of Augusta. This was valued at the sum of twenty-five thousand dollars. Thus assisted, the faculty liquidated every outstanding debt, and preserved a fund for contingent expenses.

"In the session of 1833-34 the class in attendance amounted to thirty, and at the second commencement the degree of M. D. was con-

¹Section 1 of an act to alter the name of the Medical Academy of Georgia and to extend the corporate powers of the same, passed December 19, 1829, declares that ~~from~~ and after the passage of this act the Medical Academy of Georgia shall be entitled and known as "The Medical Institute of the State of Georgia." (See Dawson's *Compilations*, p. 197.)

²Lewis's Report, p. 115. Also Prince's Digest, p. 681.

³Dr. Paul F. Eve, afterward of Nashville, Tenn.

⁴The building, which stands upon a lot adjoining that occupied by the Richmond Academy and which was generously ceded by the trustees of the academy for the use of the college, was completed in the spring of 1834.

⁵See Section 5 of act of December 20, 1833 (Prince's Digest, p. 681).

medical jurisprudence, ophthalmology, otology, and pharmacy. There are eight professors representing the several branches. Prominent among them is Dr. Henry F. Campbell, who has charge of the departments of surgery and gynæcology. Beside his noteworthiness as a gynæcologist, Doctor Campbell is also a man of national reputation, having recently filled the presidency of the Medical Association of America.¹ With these professors two demonstrators and four clinical assistants are associated.

A candidate for the degree of doctor of medicine must have attended two full courses of lectures in this or some other college in good standing, and pass a satisfactory examination on all branches taught in the institution.² In addition to the regular course of two sessions,³ the faculty offers and strongly recommends to the student a graded course of three terms. In this course the student is examined on anatomy, physiology, and chemistry at the expiration of the first term, and on such of the remaining branches as he may elect at the end of the second, completing his examination and graduating at the end of the third.

As has been already seen, the Medical College is one of the participants in the Charles McDonald Brown Scholarship Fund. Another assistance which the institution affords to poor students operates through its beneficiary system. In compliance with its charter, two students from each Congressional district of Georgia are admitted to the enjoyment of its privileges gratuitously. All applicants, on their part, are required to state on honor that they are unable, alone or with the aid of friends, to pay their tuition fees. They are also required to furnish the customary certificate from their county as to moral character and fitness.

THE SAVANNAH MEDICAL COLLEGE.⁴

This institution belongs now to the past. While its corporate existence relates back to a period almost contemporaneous with the foundation of the Medical College of Georgia, its career of usefulness did not, in duration, transcend a quarter of a century.

A charter to establish and incorporate a medical college in the city of Savannah was granted in 1838;⁵ but no active measures were taken to erect a building until 1852, when J. Gordon Howard, M. D., took the initiatory steps to that end, and Drs. P. M. Kollock, R. D. Arnold, W. G. Bulloch, C. W. West, H. L. Byrd, E. H. Martin, J. Gordon Howard,

¹ Doctor Campbell is a graduate of the college, having received his diploma in 1842; and we find him two years later a member of its faculty, and serving in the capacity of demonstrator. He was at the time hardly twenty years old.

² See Code of Georgia, 1882, p. 255.

³ The college session commences on the first Monday in November, and terminates on the first of March following.

⁴ Historical Record of the City of Savannah. Savannah, Ga., 1889. Pp. 164-6.

Savannah Medical College: Circular and Catalogue of the Trustees, Faculty, and Students; Announcements of Lectures, Session 1857-58, etc.

⁵ See act of December 31, 1838 (Acts of 1838, pp. 156-7).

and J. B. Read petitioned the trustees to organize them into a faculty. They pledged themselves to erect a suitable structure, and to provide all apparatus necessary for medical instruction and illustration.

Owing to the opposition of a number of medical gentlemen, the desired privileges were withheld. Nothing daunted, however, the above-named physicians associated themselves together as a corporation under the name of the Savannah Medical Institute, and erected a college building, the corner-stone of which was laid by Dr. R. D. Arnold in January, 1853. In the following November the first course of lectures was delivered. During the session of 1856-57 there were twenty-seven students in attendance upon the Savannah Medical College, as the institution was then called, nine of whom received diplomas at its close.

At that time the faculty, inclusive of a demonstrator of anatomy, numbered eight professors. Prominent among the instructors and lecturers were Dr. Richard D. Arnold, professor of theory and practice of medicine,¹ and Dr. Joseph Jones, now of New Orleans, who had charge of the department of medical chemistry. The former, as has been seen, was intimately connected with the organization of the college. The latter, Doctor Jones, through his writings and discoveries, is well known to the scientific world, and is distinguished as a chemist, an original investigator, and a physician.

The exercises of the Savannah Medical College were interrupted by the War. The suspension thus occasioned continued until 1866. In that year the college was reopened, and its operations were conducted as well as the impoverished condition of its resources² would allow. But after struggling on for a period of some fourteen years, the doors of the institution were permanently closed to students about 1880.

THE GEORGIA COLLEGE OF ECLECTIC MEDICINE AND SURGERY.³

There are three medical colleges located at Atlanta. The first of them which we will consider is the Georgia College of Eclectic Medicine and Surgery. This institution was chartered by an act passed by the General Assembly of the State of Georgia in 1839. It was at first located at Forsyth, Monroe County, and was known as the Southern Botanico-Medical College.⁴ In 1846 it was removed to Macon, and

¹ Doctor Arnold remained in this chair, reflecting honor on himself and the college of which he was one of the chief ornaments, until his death, which occurred about 1872.

² After the capture of Savannah, in 1864, the college building was used as a United States hospital, and from it the Federal troops carried off the fine apparatus, the valuable collections of minerals, the engravings and paintings for illustration, the anatomical preparations, and the pathological specimens which belonged to it.

³ Sixth Annual Report of the State Board of Health of Illinois. Appendix A: Conspectus of the Medical Colleges of America, pp. 19-21.

⁴ The preamble of the act incorporating this college, approved December 11, 1839 (Laws of 1839, pp. 134-6), recites that "*Whereas* the friends of the Botanic (commonly called the Thomsonian) System of Medical Practice in the Southern States are desirous of establishing a medical college at the town of Forsyth, Monroe County, in which the doctrines they advocate may be scientifically taught, together with the

its name was changed¹ to the Reform Medical College of Georgia. At Macon, previous to the war between the States, the career of the college was successful, graduating hundreds of physicians. Later,² the title of the institution was altered to College of American Medicine and Surgery.³ In pursuance of the provisions of an act of the Legislature, in 1880 the college was transferred to Atlanta; and in 1884 the College of American Medicine and Surgery, and the Georgia Eclectic Medical College,⁴ which was partly conducted by professors who had been connected with the College of American Medicine and Surgery in Macon, were united under the original charter. The name of the institution was once more changed by the General Assembly of Georgia to the Georgia College of Eclectic Medicine and Surgery. This name it still retains.

The course consists of didactic and clinical lectures, practical demonstrations—anatomical and chemical—and recitations, coupled with the presentation and defence of theses by the students. The subjects embraced in the lectures are anatomy, physiology and hygiene, principles and practice of medicine, obstetrics and diseases of women and children, chemistry and toxicology, surgery, materia medica and therapeutics, pathology and medical jurisprudence, and clinical surgery and urine analysis. A two years' study of these branches is required before the students are allowed to graduate. In this respect the institution corresponds with the medical college at Augusta. The faculty of this college likewise recommends a three years' graded course after the usual studies have been completed.

The college building offers comfortable accommodation to three hundred students; and, beside containing a general lecture-room, a chemical lecture-room, and a laboratory where general pharmacy and a course of toxicology are united with chemistry, is said to have a good museum of pathological and other specimens, and a fairly complete physico-chemical apparatus.

usual branches taught in other medical institutions; and *whereas* the friends of such a college have already subscribed liberally, in money and property, in aid of said object: *Be it therefore enacted*," etc.

¹This was done in 1854. The college had then been for thirteen years in active operation, having graduated its first class in 1841. In 1852 the State Legislature appropriated five thousand dollars to enable the board of trustees to erect a building, procure apparatus, etc., for the college. (White's Historical Collections of Georgia, p. 269.)

²Viz, in 1874. Classes had been graduated every year until 1861. Operations were suspended during the Civil War, but were resumed in 1867. Students were graduated in 1868, and in each subsequent year until 1874, when the college changed its name.

³The first class graduated under this name was in 1874. There were no graduating classes in 1877, 78, 79, 80, or 81. During the session of 1882-83 there was a class of twenty-four matriculates, of whom fourteen were graduated at the close of the session.

⁴This institution, organized in 1877, graduated its first class the same year, and classes in each subsequent year until the date of its coalition with the College of American Medicine and Surgery.

This institution has until recently been a mixed college, women having been admitted to an attendance upon the winter course. Of the graduates during the session of 1886-87, twenty three in number, three were females. This plan, however, not having met with the success anticipated, the board and faculty have determined to provide a spring course specially for women, equal in every respect to that arranged for male students. The faculty consists of eleven professors and one demonstrator, and A. G. Thomas, M. D., LL. D., is its president.

ATLANTA MEDICAL COLLEGE.

This college is said to be the oldest institution of learning in the city of Atlanta, having been organized in 1854. With the exception of the war period, it has been in active operation ever since. Its graduates number more than one thousand, fifty-four having received the degree of M. D. at the last annual commencement, March 1, 1888.

The faculty is composed of thirteen instructors, including a demonstrator in anatomy and an assistant to the chair of eye, ear, and throat diseases. Prof. H. V. M. Miller, M. D., LL. D., is its dean. Prominent among the professors is Dr. A. W. Calhoun, of Atlanta, who has charge of the department of the diseases of the eye, ear, and throat. With this branch of medical science Doctor Calhoun is thoroughly conversant, and as a successful and skilful operator his reputation is established beyond the borders of his own State.

SOUTHERN MEDICAL COLLEGE.

This institution dates from 1879, and is the most recently established of the medical colleges in Georgia. It is located in Atlanta. The number of its students has steadily increased since its opening. In 1881-82 one hundred and twenty-six were in attendance, of whom thirty-seven received diplomas at the end of the session. There are about three hundred graduates of this college. The last degrees conferred were in March of the present year (1888.) The faculty is composed of eight regular instructors and three auxiliary professors and special lecturers. William Perrin Nicolson, M. D., is the dean.

CHAPTER VIII.

CHARITABLE INSTITUTIONS.

AUGUSTA ORPHAN ASYLUM.¹

We have seen under what circumstances and with what intents the Bethesda Orphan House was established at Savannah. Similar motives prompted the erection of an orphan asylum at Augusta. In furtherance of a desire, entertained by certain benevolent persons, to provide a home for orphans in that city, the Legislature of the State of Georgia, by an act approved January 22, 1852, incorporated "Thomas W. Miller, Henry H. Cumming, Edward F. Campbell, John Milledge, Artemas Gould, Lewis D. Ford, and John R. Dow, and all others who may associate with them and their successors," a body politic and corporate, by the name and style of "The Augusta Orphan Asylum," and authorized the City Council "to make a donation of lots of land in said city, money, or the bonds of said city, to such amount as they might deem proper, to the Augusta Orphan Asylum, to be used for the purposes of the said association."²

PROVISIONS FOR ITS SUPPORT.

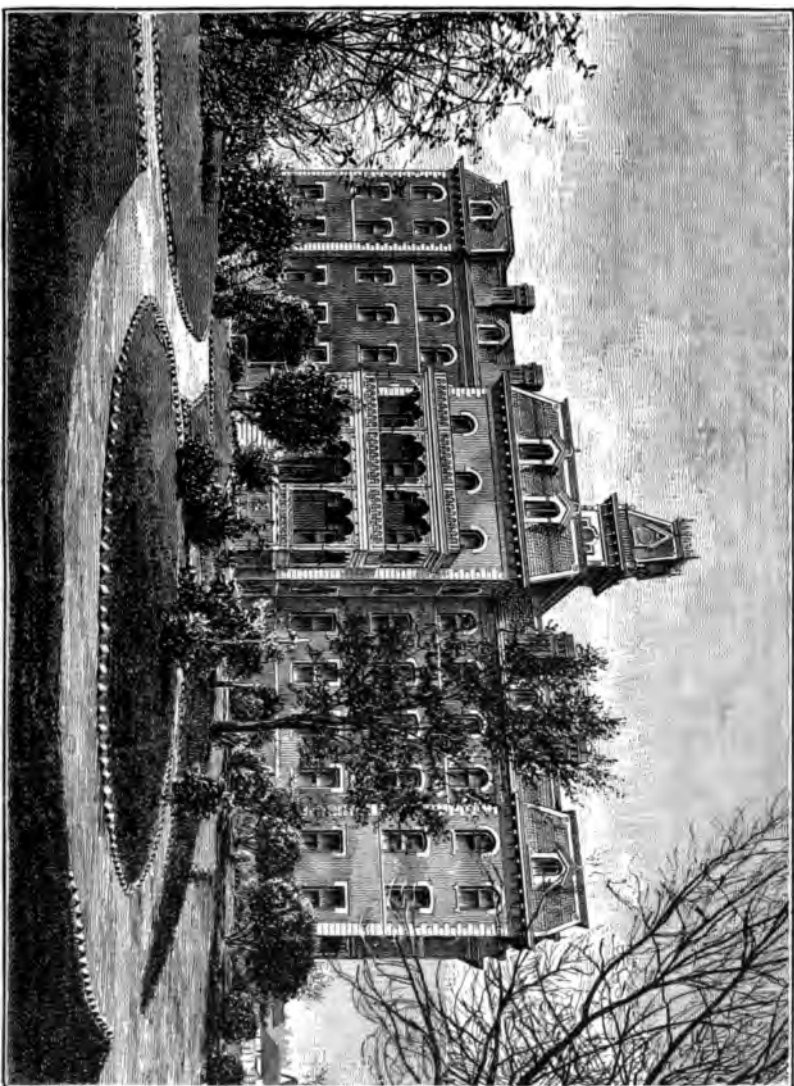
Some time elapsed before the society was prepared to undertake the care of orphans. Meanwhile, earnest effort was made, chiefly by Mr. Thomas W. Miller, to raise money by means of individual subscriptions.

In May, 1854, the first board of managers, composed of Artemas Gould, president; Thomas W. Miller, Lewis D. Ford, James Gardner, R. H. Gardner, Dr. James Mackie, and John R. Dow, adopted a constitution and by-laws.

Early in 1855 a house was rented and placed in charge of a matron, and four orphans were admitted to the privileges of the asylum. At the same time, steps were taken looking to the erection of an orphan house upon a lot appropriated by the City Council for that purpose. This, however, became unnecessary, in consequence of a liberal bequest made to the society in the will of Isaac S. Tuttle, Esq., who died on December 12, 1855, leaving the house formerly occupied by him on Walker

¹ Augusta Orphan Asylum: Annual Reports from 1869 to 1877, and Reports of its Thirty-fourth Annual Meeting, April 20, 1887, and Thirty-fifth, April 18, 1888.

² Sections two and three of act. (Laws of Georgia, 1851-52, p. 437.)



AUGUSTA ORPHAN ASYLUM.

Street, and other property, amounting in all to fifty thousand dollars, for the use of the association. This gift, added to the income from two hundred shares of Georgia Railroad stock, previously donated to the asylum by the City Council, provided amply for the institution in its infancy. The "Tuttle house" was at once fitted up for an orphans' home, and, with subsequent additions, was occupied as such about seventeen years.

DONATION OF GEORGE M. NEWTON.

The death of Dr. George M. Newton in January, 1859, brought to the asylum property valued at two hundred thousand dollars. This large increment to its resources opened to the society a field of usefulness wholly beyond the expectations of its founders and early friends. An amendment to its charter was obtained from the Legislature, December 9, 1859, allowing the board of managers, at their discretion, to receive children who were not orphans, and from any county in the State, and prescribing severe penalties for leaving children at the asylum without the consent of the proper officers.¹

The income of the society, under the careful management of its first president, Mr. Gould, so far exceeded its necessary expenditures that at the time of his resignation of the trust, in April, 1870, the par value of its capital was \$347,071.

Soon after the death of Mr. Tuttle, the board of managers adopted resolutions looking to the building at some future time, on the "Tuttle lot," on Walker Street, of an orphan house large enough to accommodate sixty children, with the necessary officers. The War and other causes prevented the accomplishment of this purpose for a number of years; and when in 1869 the society was preparing to build, its condition and prospects called for a larger structure than was formerly contemplated, and a more desirable location.

The subject of removal was carefully weighed in all its bearings, and an eligible site was finally agreed upon, viz, an ample lot fronting the Georgia Railroad, between Harper and Boundary Streets, near the western boundary of the city. For this wise choice the society is largely indebted to the influence of Dr. Lewis D. Ford, the second president of the association.

THE NEW ORPHAN HOUSE.

The present orphan house was begun in December, 1870, and completed sufficiently for occupation in December, 1873.² It is a handsome and imposing structure, capable of accommodating one hundred and twenty-five children, having every provision for their care and comfort, and containing apartments for officers and employes. The cost of the building and grounds was about one hundred and seventy-four thousand dollars.

¹ An act in addition to the act for incorporating the "Augusta Orphan Asylum," and for punishing certain offences touching the same. (Laws of Georgia, 1859, pp. 122-3.)

² A portion of the interior is still unfinished.

This asylum is now in charge of a matron and two teachers, who together constitute its faculty of instruction. According to the president's report, as submitted April 20, 1887, there were one hundred and twenty-four children in the house on January 1 of that year, sixty two of whom were boys and sixty-two girls, while in April of the following year we find one hundred and eight children in the asylum, fifty-seven being boys and fifty-one girls.¹

Viewed as a whole, the Augusta Orphan Asylum represents, perhaps, the best type of its class in the South. It is certainly one of the most extensive, well-ordered, and successfully conducted institutions of its kind.

SAVANNAH FEMALE ASYLUM.²

Although the Female Asylum at Savannah is not so extensive as the Orphan Asylum at Augusta, it is much older. It had a common origin with the Union Society³ which was founded in 1750, and its object was to arrange for the care and education of orphan and destitute children. These, without distinction of sex, enjoyed the benefits of its charitable appropriations until the 17th of December, 1801, when, for the greater advantage of both classes of children, the Rev. Henry Holcombe, then resident pastor of the Baptist Church of Savannah, suggested to several ladies of piety and benevolence the propriety of a separation of the sexes. The suggestion was approved, and was promptly acted upon by the parties interested in the charitable scheme.⁴

The female asylum, in 1801, commenced an independent existence, under a board of directors composed of fourteen ladies. In 1810 the Legislature of Georgia granted an act of incorporation, founded on a system of rules for the better government of the institution.⁵

Past experience demonstrated the necessity for a larger building and a more suitable location than the one occupied in the eastern part of the city, but the limited funds of the society, at the time, prevented the desired change. In 1838 Mrs. M. Marshall and Mrs. M. Richardsone

¹ The eligibility of children for admission to the privileges of the asylum depends upon their being orphans between the ages of three and ten. Unusual applications are submitted for the special determination of the board. (See Third By-Law.)

² Jesse H. Campbell's *Georgia Baptists*. Richmond, 1847. Page 33.

Historical Record of the City of Savannah. Savannah, 1869. Pp. 167-8.

Henderson's Commonwealth of Georgia, pp. 295-6.

³ The plan of this society was projected by some three or four persons of as many different religious persuasions, and it was called "Union" to designate the amalgamation of all creeds. The object of the society has ever been the maintenance and education of distressed orphan boys. (Anniversary Address by Thomas U. P. Charlton, April 23, 1823. *Union Society Records, 1750-1858*.) We are further told by Mr. Charlton that since the Revolutionary War one hundred and twenty-nine children have been supported and educated by the bounty of the society.

⁴ "The 'Savannah Female Asylum' (a society for supporting and educating helpless female orphans) was formed," we are told, "in his (Mr. Holcombe's) parlor, under a constitution and by-laws drawn up by himself." (Campbell's *Georgia Baptists*, p. 33.)

⁵ Act of December 15, 1810. (Cuthbert's *Digest*, pp. 193-5.)

volunteered to assist the endeavors of the board of managers to increase, by a public collection, the available means of the society in the accomplishment of so laudable an object. Their combined efforts happily proved successful, and the erection of a substantial and commodious edifice on the corner of Bull and Charlton Streets was the result.¹

The Savannah Female Asylum has been maintained by annual subscriptions, and has received many valuable bequests. Writing of it in 1847, Mr. Campbell says, that from its formation up to that time it had been the favorite of all denominations; and that individuals as well as bodies, in both the civil and religious departments of the community, had vied with each other in supporting it.²

The affairs of the institution are managed by a board of directors who meet once a month, and a visiting committee is appointed to purchase the necessary food and raiment. The charity is conducted by a matron, a second matron, and a cook. A teacher also instructs and resides in the asylum. The number of orphans in the asylum in 1885³ was fifty-six. Children are admitted at the age of three years, and are bound to the asylum "as apprentices indented to a master, to learn any trade, profession, or calling," until they reach the age of eighteen years.⁴

OTHER ORPHAN ASYLUMS.⁵

ORPHANS' HOME OF THE SOUTH GEORGIA CONFERENCE.—There are two other asylums in the State, which have been erected for the care and education of orphans. One is the Orphans' Home of the South Georgia Conference of the Methodist Episcopal Church South, and is located in Bibb County, near Macon. It was founded by Mr. Maxwell, of that city, as his private benevolent enterprise in 1857, and so continued until 1873, when it passed into the hands of the above specified conference, by the voluntary contributions of whose members it is now supported. The superintendent of the asylum in 1885 was the Rev. L. B. Payne. Five hundred and forty-eight orphans had up to that time been received, and of this number five hundred and ten had been cared for since the asylum became the property of the conference. The Home has ninety acres of land, and the property is worth about eight thousand dollars. The children are taught in the elementary branches, are instructed in farm and household work, and are retained until good homes can be secured for them.

ORPHANS' HOME OF THE NORTH GEORGIA CONFERENCE.—The other asylum to which we have alluded is the Orphans' Home of the North Georgia Conference. It was established by that Conference of

¹ Historical Record, etc., p. 168.

² Georgia Baptists, p. 33.

³ Henderson's Commonwealth of Georgia, p. 295.

⁴ Acts of 1851-52, pp. 357-8.

⁵ Jones's Hand-Book of Georgia, pp. 194-5.

Butler's History of Macon, p. 303.

Henderson's Commonwealth of Georgia, pp. 294-5.

the Methodist Episcopal Church South in 1867. The venerable Jesse Boring, M. D., D. D., originated the plan, and it was founded mainly through his efforts. This home is located near Decatur, De Kalb County. It owns a comfortable house of eight rooms, and a farm of three hundred acres, which is partly under cultivation. The institution has no endowment, but is entirely dependent upon voluntary contributions from the people. About sixty otherwise homeless children are here well cared for, properly trained in mind and morals, and fitted to fill honest and honorable vocations in life. Rev. A. J. Gibson, superintendent and agent in 1885, was assisted by his wife. They resided at the home.

GEORGIA INSTITUTION FOR THE DEAF AND DUMB.¹

At the session of the Legislature in 1833, Mr. John L. Flournoy presented a memorial praying for the establishment of an institution for the education of deaf-mutes. It was referred to the Governor with a request that he obtain full information, and report to the next meeting of the General Assembly. At the next session, in November, 1834, His Excellency Hon. Wilson Lumpkin laid all the information he had acquired before the Legislature, expressing himself as particularly indebted to Governor Foot, of Connecticut, and Lewis Weld, the principal of the Deaf and Dumb Academy at Hartford. In consequence of this correspondence Mr. Weld came to Georgia with a class of deaf-mutes, and exhibited their educational attainments before the members of the Legislature. The result was, the General Assembly appropriated three thousand dollars for the education of the "indigent deaf and dumb of the State, between the ages of twelve and twenty," at the asylum at Hartford.² This experiment, as will be seen, proved unsatisfactory, on account of the great distance and the unwillingness of subjects to go so far from home, and among strangers.

In March, 1835, Rev. Elijah Sinclair was appointed by Governor Lumpkin State commissioner to ascertain who were the indigent deaf and dumb children of the State; to collect and convey them to Hartford; and to have them supported and educated there at the expense of the State. He was faithful and zealous in the execution of the trust. He was re-appointed to the same work by two of the successors of Governor Lumpkin, and was complimented by the Legislature for his efficiency and integrity. He travelled extensively over the State search-

¹ White's Statistics of Georgia, p. 85.

White's Historical Collections of Georgia, p. 455.

Janes's Hand-Book of Georgia, pp. 192-3.

Code of Georgia, 1882, pp. 257-9.

Henderson's Commonwealth of Georgia, pp. 293-4.

Twenty-fourth and Twenty-fifth Reports of the Board of Trustees and Officers of the Georgia Institution for the Education of the Deaf and Dumb, published respectively in 1886 and 1888.

² Laws of 1835, pp. 330-32.

ing for deaf-mutes, but succeeded in sending only six to Hartford. In 1836 he found sixteen in the State who came within the provisions of the law, but only three could be induced to go.

In 1842 and 1843 Cedar Valley Academy made successful experiments in teaching deaf-mutes; and in December, 1845, the Legislature required all the State beneficiaries to be withdrawn from Hartford and educated in Georgia.¹ The Rev. Jesse H. Campbell, then State commissioner, arranged with the Hearn Manual Labor School at Cave Spring, Floyd County, to make the education of deaf-mutes a department of that institution. Mr. O. P. Fannin, then associate instructor in that school, was sent to Hartford, in order to acquire the methods of teaching. He returned with the Georgia pupils and entered them in the deaf-mute department of the Hearn School, which was opened with four scholars in a log cabin May 15, 1846.

PROVISION OF THE LEGISLATURE.

In 1847 the Legislature provided the means for erecting a suitable building.² Cave Spring was the site chosen, and the building was finished in June, 1849, and occupied on the first of the following July. From that time until March, 1862, there was no break in the operations of the school; but the turbulence of the times and the enlistment of two of the teachers in the army decided the trustees then to suspend its exercises. It was reopened, however, in February, 1867, the Legislature having made an appropriation for that purpose during the preceding year. Ever since it has been in active existence.

TERMS OF ADMISSION.

In 1876, pursuant to a recommendation made by the board of trustees³ in their report to the Governor for 1875, the General Assembly authorized and provided for the erection of a suitable building for the admission of negro pupils, and since its completion the colored deaf-mutes have enjoyed equal facilities for instruction with the whites, under the immediate care of teachers of their own race. All deaf-

¹ *Janes's Hand-Book of Georgia*, p. 192.

² See an act to provide for the establishment and location of an asylum for the deaf and dumb, to raise a board of commissioners for the same, and to define the rules under which persons may receive its benefits, and for other purposes. Approved December 16, 1847. (*Laws of Georgia for 1847*, pp. 94-6.) The eighth section declares that indigent deaf and dumb persons, resident anywhere within the State, shall be received into the asylum and school, and maintained and educated gratuitously, so far as the funds of the institution will permit: *Provided*, That no person under ten nor more than thirty years old shall be admitted, and that no beneficiary shall be allowed to remain more than four years.

³ See act to provide a form of government for the Georgia Institution of the Deaf and Dumb, and for other purposes. (*Laws of 1877*, p. 32.) The number of trustees was fixed at seven.

deaf-mutes of the State who are over ten and under twenty-seven years of age, mentally and physically unimpaired and free from any immoral habit or contagious disease, are entitled to all the benefits of the academy, free of charge, for the term of seven years; and an additional term is also allowed to "such pupils as have exhibited a commendable energy and a mental capacity to be benefited; the conferring of this privilege being conditional upon good behavior and diligent application."¹ Deaf-mutes from other States are admitted upon payment of one hundred and seventy-five dollars each per school term of ten months.

The annual State appropriations for the support of the institution have averaged about fifteen thousand dollars.² The estimated value of the property in 1876 was twenty-five thousand dollars, and there were then almost one thousand volumes in the library.³

In 1886 the number receiving instruction was ninety-one, sixty-one of whom were whites and thirty colored. There were four instructors in the white and two in the colored department, and Prof. W. O. Connor was principal. During the present year (1887), there has been an attendance of eighty-six deaf-mutes, fifty-seven being white and twenty-nine colored.

GEORGIA ACADEMY FOR THE BLIND.⁴

This institution was incorporated by an act of the Legislature of Georgia assented to January 2, 1852. It originated in a movement made by the citizens of Macon, at a meeting held for this purpose on the 18th of April, 1851.⁵

In January of that year Mr. W. S. Fortescue had arrived in Macon from Philadelphia, with letters of recommendation as a suitable person to introduce into Georgia a system for the education of the blind, and it was at the convocation just referred to that the first publication on the subject occurred. The result of the meeting was the appointment by the chair of five persons to solicit subscriptions, with a view to enabling Mr. Fortescue to educate four blind children until the convening

¹ Section 1235 of Georgia Code of 1832.

² The last sum, nine thousand dollars, was donated by the Legislature at the fall session of 1887.

³ *Janes's Hand-Book of Georgia*, p. 193.

⁴ *Ibid.*, pp. 191-2.

Butler's History of Macon, pp. 306-9.

Code of Georgia, 1832 Revision, pp. 256-7.

Henderson's Commonwealth of Georgia, pp. 292-3.

Thirty-Fifth Annual Report of the Trustees of the Georgia Academy for the Blind, Macon, Ga., to the Governor of Georgia (1886). Also Thirty-Sixth and Thirty-Seventh Annual Reports (1887 and 1888).

Origin and History of the Georgia Academy for the Blind, with documents from the beginning, 1851 to 1887. Macon, Ga., 1887.

⁵ *Butler's History of Macon*, p. 306.

of the next Legislature. The committee selected were, W. S. Fortescue, Dr. J. M. Green, R. A. Smith, R. S. Lightfoot, and Edwin Graves. A number of ladies and gentlemen subscribed liberally on the first call. On the 4th of July the subscribers met, and Doctor Green, chairman of the committee, read his report, which showed that six hundred and fifty dollars had been promised. It also stated that application had been made for a copy of the Bible in raised characters; that a piano had been purchased and an apparatus engaged; that the General Assembly would be petitioned for aid; and that the statistics showed that there were two hundred and twenty blind children in the State without the rudiments of education. The report was adopted.

The committee then submitted a preamble and articles organizing the Georgia Academy for the Blind, to be located in Macon. This was followed by the election of seven trustees as follows: J. M. Green, N. C. Munroe, E. B. Weed, John B. Lamar, R. A. Smith, Edwin Graves, and A. H. Chappell. Before the adjournment of the meeting, one hundred and fifty-two more dollars were subscribed.

The school was opened in July, 1851. Mr. W. S. Fortescue was the first principal, and Miss Hannah Guilan the female teacher. It was sustained by charitable donations of citizens until the session of the Legislature in the ensuing January, when it received a charter. The act required the trustees to "select indigent blind persons from different counties of the State, between the ages of twelve and thirty, and maintain and educate them gratuitously," and appropriated five thousand dollars per annum for the years 1852 and 1853, to aid in supporting the institution.¹

On January 22, 1852, Mr. Munroe resigned the presidency of the board, of which he was the first chairman, and was succeeded by Doctor Green, who continued in office for nearly thirty years. In July of the next year, the board presented their first Annual Report. In it the president stated:

THE PRESIDENT'S REPORT.

"The class of pupils was ten, three boys and seven girls, and had made astonishing progress in arithmetic, geography, and other departments of knowledge. Some of the female pupils made an equally remarkable progress in crochet work, sewing, and other varieties in useful and ornamental needlework."

Shortly after, Governor Howell Cobb, in an eloquent lecture before the Milledgeville Lyceum, proposed that "one-third of the large revenue of the State Road should be devoted to the maintenance of the three great objects of the State charity,—the Lunatic Asylum (at Milledgeville, opened in 1842), the Deaf and Dumb Institute, and the School for the Blind;"² but the suggestion was never adopted.

¹ Acts of 1851-52, pp. 4-6.

² Butler's History of Macon, p. 307.

APPROPRIATIONS BY THE LEGISLATURE.

The necessities of the academy having greatly increased, application was made in 1855 for an appropriation of twenty thousand dollars to erect suitable buildings. This was granted in 1856. Half that amount had been obtained from the Legislature for the same purpose in 1854.¹ Upon investigation, however, it was found that the sum was inadequate to the expense of the undertaking. Further appropriations were afterward made, and the academy was finished and occupied by pupils in 1859. Its cost was about sixty-five thousand dollars. The ceremony of laying the corner-stone of the academy, located on a beautiful lot on College Hill, was conducted on July 5, 1852, with imposing effect, in the presence of two thousand spectators. Hon. Thomas Hardeman was chosen the orator on that occasion, in appreciation of his signal efforts in the House of Representatives to secure the requisite increase of appropriation.

During the War the academy building was used for a Confederate hospital. The teachers and pupils moved to Fort Valley, where the school was kept in operation until their return to the academy in 1865. In the meanwhile, the Federal Army had occupied the building, and had destroyed and carried off five thousand dollars' worth of property belonging to the institution. The school was continued by loans until the State was in a condition to resume the payment of its accustomed appropriations.

The first principal of the academy was Mr. Fortescue (already alluded to) in 1852, with Miss Hannah Guillan as assistant, who still retains her position. In 1853 and '54 H. Dutton was in charge; in 1855 and '56, M. Horne; and in 1857 and '58, Rev. W. N. Chaudoin. In August, 1858, the present incumbent, Prof. W. D. Williams was elected principal. Beside Professor Williams and Miss Guillan, who supervises the department of literature, there is an instructor in music.

In 1876, we are told,² there were fifty-six pupils in the academy; and that since its opening one hundred and forty-five had been admitted, of whom seventy-five had been discharged as educated in one or more of the departments. Many of them had acquired trades, by which they could earn their support. Pupils were then admitted between the ages of eight and twenty;³ males over twenty were taken into the workshop to learn trades. The value of the buildings, grounds, and property was at that time seventy-five thousand dollars, and there were about one thousand volumes in the library, including those in embossed print.

¹ Section 12 of act of February 18, 1854. (Laws of Georgia, 1853-54. p. 16.)

² *Janes's Hand-Book of Georgia*, p. 191.

³ This has been altered. In accordance with Section 1215 of the Georgia Code of 1882, "All indigent, blind persons, residents of this State, between the ages of seven and twenty-five years, shall be selected by the trustees from the different counties of the State, received into the academy, and supported and educated gratuitously to the extent the funds will permit." And it is further specified that "a beneficiary shall not remain at the charge of the institution longer than four years."

DEPARTMENT OF THE COLORED BLIND.

In 1882 a department for the colored blind¹ was opened, and is doing a good work for this class. Of the ninety-one names on the 1885-86 register, twelve belonged to colored pupils. Of the two hundred thousand dollars and more which the State has appropriated, first and last, for grounds and improvements, fourteen thousand were for the benefit of the colored blind.²

¹ The establishment of this department was largely due to Hon L. N. Whittle, who was the first, it is believed, to suggest the advisability of calling the attention of the State Legislature to the colored blind, and requesting an appropriation from them "to purchase or rent necessary buildings and provide for the support and education of such pupils as may offer."

² Henderson's Commonwealth of Georgia, p. 293.

CHAPTER IX.

INSTITUTIONS FOR COLORED PEOPLE.

These institutions are all of recent growth, having come into existence since the War. So long as slavery continued, little attempt was made to educate the blacks, except in a religious way.¹ In fact, it was forbidden by statute² to teach a slave to read or write.

This inhibition did not, however, deter some masters and mistresses from teaching their domestics to read the Scriptures, and sometimes to use the pen. Field hands, as a class, were almost universally illiterate. Carpenters, wheelwrights, blacksmiths, and mechanics often read and understood something of arithmetic. The instances of slaves being able to read, write, or cipher were, however, very few.

¹ Religious Instruction of the Negroes in the United States, by Charles C. Jones. Savannah, 1842. Part II, Chapter II.

An Historical Sketch of Slavery from the Earliest Periods, by Thomas R. R. Cobb. Philadelphia and Savannah, 1858. Chapter XVII.

The Education of the Negro—Its Rise, Progress, and Present Status: being an Address delivered before the National Educational Association at its Late Meeting at Chautauqua, N. Y., by Hon. Gustavus J. Orr, LL. D., State School Commissioner of Georgia. Atlanta, Ga., 1880. Pp. 15.

² By Section 39 of "An Act for ordering and governing slaves within this Province, and for establishing jurisdiction for the trial of offences committed by such slaves, and other persons therein mentioned, and to prevent the inveigling and carrying away slaves from their masters, owners, or employers," approved May 10, 1770 (Cobb's Digest of Georgia Laws, p. 981), it is declared "that all and every person and persons whatsoever, who shall hereafter teach, or cause any slave or slaves to be taught to write, or read writing, or shall use or employ any slave as a scribe in any manner of writing whatsoever, every such person and persons shall, for every such offence, forfeit the sum of twenty pounds sterling."

Again, in Section 11 of an act approved December 22, 1829 (*Ibid.*, p. 1001), we find this provision: "If any slave, negro, or free person of color, or any white person, shall teach any other slave, negro, or free person of color, to read or write either written or printed characters, the said free person of color or slave shall be punished by fine and whipping, or fine or whipping at the discretion of the court; and if a white person be found so offending, he, she, or they shall be punished with fine, not exceeding five hundred dollars, and imprisonment in the common jail at the discretion of the court before whom the offender is tried."

See also act of March 7, 1755. (Acts passed by the General Assembly of the colony of Georgia from 1755 to 1774—now first printed,—pp. 73-99. Wormsloe, 1881.) It was there provided that the penalty for teaching or causing any slave or slaves to be taught to write, or for employing a slave as a scribe, should be fifteen pounds sterling.

A wonderful change occurred upon the termination of the War and the establishment of the public school system. Then the doors were freely opened for the instruction of the blacks in the elementary branches of an English education. They were allowed to participate with the whites in the benefits of the school fund raised by general taxation, and multitudes¹ availed themselves of the privileges thus afforded. Nevertheless, but little progress has been made by the race in what may be termed higher education. In the ordinary common schools of the rural districts the education, as we have previously shown (Chapter III), is of a very primitive sort, being confined to reading, writing, and arithmetic, and a smattering of geography and history. In certain localities, on the other hand, schools have been opened in which the pupils are fairly taught, not only reading, writing, and arithmetic, but also history, geography, mental and moral philosophy, and advanced mathematics, and where colored females are making commendable progress in learning to play upon the melodeon, the parlor organ, and the piano. To a consideration of the characteristics of, and the advantages afforded by, the six prominent institutions in Georgia for the higher education of the colored race, the remaining sections of this paper will be devoted.

ATLANTA UNIVERSITY.²

At the close of the War the Freedmen's Bureau, together with various Northern aid societies, began the work of educating the negroes in the South. By far the most prominent among these aid societies was the American Missionary Association. They were not content with primary education, of which the negroes stood most in need, but they turned their attention to the erection of schools for their higher instruction.

From its central and healthful location Atlanta was chosen as the best place for such a school. The efforts made to raise money through the North met with success; and in October, 1867, the board of trustees was organized and the Atlanta University was duly chartered. Funds were obtained from the bureau, and about fifty acres of land were secured in the western part of the city. In June, 1869, the corner-stone of the first building was laid, and in the following October the building was occupied by the school. It was designed for a girls' dormitory, but, during the first year, it furnished accommodations, both school and

¹ From the State School Commissioner's last report (1888) we learn that during 1887 there were in attendance upon the public schools of Georgia 133,429 colored pupils, and this number is steadily increasing.

² *Janes's Hand-Book of Georgia*, pp. 187-8.

The Bulletin of Atlanta University, June, 1883. *Ibid.*, November, 1885.

Henderson's Commonwealth of Georgia, p. 274. *Catalogue for 1886-87*.

The University of Georgia and the Atlanta University—Reports of the Board of Visitors, 1887. Pp. 7 and pp. 8.

The writer is also indebted to Mr. C. Meriwether, of the Johns Hopkins University, for material collected by him.

boarding, for boys and girls. In August, 1870, another building of the same style, but larger, containing sleeping apartments for about sixty boys, beside temporary school-rooms, was completed. To this, during the ensuing year, a wing was added, providing rooms for about forty additional pupils. None of the money expended in the erection of these structures was derived from the State.

The last Republican Governor of Georgia, Mr. Conley, sold the land donated by Congress under the act of July 2, 1862, comprising some two hundred and seventy thousand acres, at the rate of ninety cents per acre. The sum realized from this sale, when invested in State bonds, was, in round numbers, two hundred and forty-three thousand dollars. When the Democrats came into power in 1872, under the administration of Governor James M. Smith, this entire fund was transferred to the State University at Athens. That college being already firmly established and organized with suitable buildings, it seemed best to make this disposition of the fund. In 1870 the Legislature appropriated eight thousand dollars to the colored school at Atlanta. During the session of 1871-72, in which the colored race was strongly represented, vigorous attempts were made to undo the work of Governor Smith. A compromise, however, was effected for that year, on condition that the Atlanta University should receive eight thousand dollars from the State. This was deemed a fair offset to the seventeen thousand dollars annually given to the State University.

The Legislature in the following year refused to continue this appropriation; but in 1874 a bill entitled, "An Act to equitably adjust the claims of the colored race for a portion of the proceeds of the agricultural land scrip,"¹ and providing for an annual appropriation to the Atlanta University of eight thousand dollars, was introduced and almost unanimously passed by the General Assembly. It appropriated the money with the understanding that the board of visitors of the University of Georgia should also visit that school; that the money should not be paid by the Governor until the plan of the trustees for its expenditure had been approved by a commission of three members of the faculty of the University of Georgia; and that the school should educate, free of charge for tuition, one pupil for every member of the House of Representatives, to be nominated by the members. In defence of the bill it was urged that Congress could not have intended the agricultural fund for the whites alone; that on the ground of policy it was advisable to appropriate a large amount to the colored school, since measures were already pending in Congress for an increased appropriation of land, and the share of Georgia might be curtailed if the money should be confined to the whites; and that it would not be right to deprive the State University of any of its portion, as such action would cripple it in its agricultural department at Athens and the branch college at Dahlonega.

¹ Laws of Georgia, 1874, pp. 32-3.



SOUTH HALL.

ATLANTA UNIVERSITY.

STONE HALL.

NORTH HALL.



Supported by these arguments the bill became a law, and its provisions have been regularly carried into effect until a very recent date.¹

THE UNIVERSITY CURRICULUM.

The curriculum of the Atlanta University at first consisted of a preparatory and a normal department. In 1872 the collegiate department was opened, and provision was subsequently made for instruction in theology on a broad catholic basis, and without regard to any particular denomination.² The preparatory department, in the second year of the school's operations, embraced higher arithmetic, algebra, geometry, ancient history, ancient geography, Latin, and Greek. The normal course then included a careful survey of the elementary branches, with reference to teaching them, algebra, geometry, natural science, mental and moral philosophy, drawing, English literature, Latin, and the theory and practice of teaching. This latter department has, in its conduct, subserved an important and useful purpose. It is steadfastly borne in mind by the institution, and every effort is made to prepare the pupils for their chosen calling of teachers. Many of those who have attended its classes are now busily engaged in teaching, not only in Georgia, but also in adjoining States.³

Beside the three courses already named—collegiate, preparatory, and normal—the University has a mechanical course and a grammar school course.

INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION.

The former covers three years, and all male students above the third grade are required to take it in addition to their regular studies in other courses, six and a half hours in each week being devoted to this work.

¹ Those charged with the control and management of the Atlanta University having recently declined to stipulate against the co-education of the races, the payment by the State of its annual appropriation of eight thousand dollars for the support of that University, as an institution for the exclusive instruction and training of colored pupils, has been temporarily withheld. (See Laws of 1887, p. 901.) The Governor is directed not to draw his warrant for the amount until such a plan of expenditure as will secure the use of the same for the education of colored children only, in accordance with the declared and settled policy of the State on the subject of the co-education of the races, shall have been submitted and approved by the commission constituted in the act of March 3, 1874, for the supervision of the expenditure of the appropriation. See, in this connection, the section in Governor Gordon's Annual Message of November 9, 1888, relating to the Atlanta University and the eight thousand dollars appropriation.

² The only theological classes graduated at Atlanta University were in 1871, when the class consisted of one member, and in 1876, when it was composed of three members. (Catalogue for 1886-87, p. 5.)

³ We find by the catalogue of 1886-87 that nearly all the graduates, and many who left before finishing their course, are now engaged in teaching during a portion or all of the year; and that beside these, during the four months of the summer vacation, a large number of students engage in teaching. It is estimated that over ten thousand children in Georgia are taught, annually, by those who have been connected as pupils with this institution. It is also stated that of the one hundred and fifty-five graduates up to 1886, one hundred and fourteen were from the normal classes.

In the shops the boys are taught the principles of wood and metal-working, the use of wood-turning lathes and tools, glazing, and drawing.

The facilities for the pursuit of this mechanical course have been greatly increased by the erection of the Knowles Industrial Building. This structure was the gift of Mrs. L. J. Knowles, of Worcester, Mass., through whose generosity it was erected in 1884 as a memorial to her husband. The building is of brick, one hundred by forty-four feet, and three stories high. It has a good outfit of tools and other appliances. One room contains eighteen cabinet benches, each with a set of tools; another has twelve wood-turning lathes, run by steam-power; and a third, the forge room, recently put in operation, is supplied with twelve forges and anvils.

Special emphasis must be laid upon the industrial education afforded at this Atlanta University. It appears to be complete and satisfactory. The mechanical work of the shops is united with an agricultural training on the farm, embodying instruction in the methods of farm management and in the details of stock raising and gardening.¹ The girls, on the other hand, are taught various branches of household duties, such as sewing, cooking, dress-making, and general house-keeping.

The industrial department has always claimed the attention of, and received an honorable mention from the visiting boards. Referring to the progress it had made and its excellent workings, the visitors in June, 1884, said in their report to the Governor: "Your committee would state that there was no department of this University that struck them more favorably than the industrial education in all its various forms. * * * The boys are taught practical agriculture and gardening. * * * The house-keeping department, under a competent lady for the graduating girls, we especially liked."

Again, in the report for 1886, we read: "The domestic arts of cooking, sewing, and dress-making are taught by competent instructors. Gardening and farming are closely looked after by a very capable and trustworthy agriculturist. * * * The results achieved in this direction are eminently satisfactory. In the mechanic arts, including carpentry and wood-turning, very gratifying progress has been made. * * * With better equipments, we have the germ of a technological school that will be a blessing to the State." And in the report for 1887, we find that "the agricultural exhibit, consisting of varieties of corn, wheat, grass, and the like, raised upon the farm, was very creditable;" and that "instruction in the art of printing likewise forms a part of the industrial training, though the appliances in this department are as yet incomplete."

CAPACITY FOR A HIGH GRADE OF CULTURE.

Thomas Jefferson has been credited with saying that no pure African could ever grasp the forty-seventh proposition of Euclid. This remark

¹ The rule has been for the boys to spend one hour a day in practical work on the farm.



KNOWLES INDUSTRIAL BUILDING, ATLANTA UNIVERSITY.

was widely quoted through the South as a strong indorsement of the popular view regarding the mental incapacity of the negroes, and their inability to understand or appreciate the higher branches of education. Later developments, however, and the results arrived at by this and other schools, seem destined to bring about a modification of that view: for, while the course of study is almost as advanced as that of many of the white colleges, including, as it does, the Latin of Cicero, Tacitus, and Livy, and the Greek of Homer, Demosthenes, and Plato, trigonometry and surveying,¹ history, English literature, mental and moral philosophy, and approved text-books in political economy and the sciences, the students, by the testimony of the whites themselves, perform their work with commendable success. Witness, for instance, the confession contained in the report of Senator Joseph E. Brown, chairman of the first board of visitors appointed by the Governor:

"At every step of the examination we were impressed with the fallacy of the popular idea (which, in common with thousands of others, a majority of the undersigned have heretofore entertained) that the members of the African race are not capable of a high grade of intellectual culture. The rigid tests to which the classes in algebra and geometry, and in Latin and Greek, were subjected, unequivocally demonstrated that under judicious training and with persevering study, there are many members of the African race who can attain a high grade of intellectual culture. They proved that they can master intricate problems in mathematics, and fully comprehend the construction of difficult passages in the classics."

Note also the report of the committee of the board of visitors of the University of Georgia for 1874: "The progress made by the students, as a whole, is highly satisfactory, while there were not wanting many instances of superior merit and proficiency among their members."

Soon after the close of the Civil War, an unnatural feeling of hostility sprang up between the whites and the blacks in the South. A mutual sentiment of distrust was the inevitable consequence. To add to the difficulty of the situation, a horde of adventurers came in from other States, seeking wealth and political preferment through the instrumentality of colored votes. They were in many cases sharp and unprincipled, and fanned the slight flame of race prejudice into a mighty blaze, which it required years to subdue.

When, therefore, the whites were restored to power in Georgia, and the Legislature appropriated the money to Atlanta University, much dissatisfaction was manifested by the people of the State.² It is even

¹ Mathematics is only studied through the Freshman and Sophomore years.

² Objections have been urged against Atlanta University, on the ground that such a "movement in favor of university education for the colored people is far in advance of the demands of the present condition of colored society;" and that "the money thus expended should be exclusively devoted to instructing and training teachers specially for the work of elementary schools." (State School Commissioner Orr's Report for 1875.)

stated that some influential persons endeavored to prevent the appropriations to the school. The secret of this delay in the circumstances that the teachers employed at the institution were all Northerners, who, it was alleged, sedulously implanted in the mind of the colored pupil feelings of dislike for his native State, and of bitter hatred for the whites.

But better counsels at length prevailed, and the State board of visitors adopted the rational plan of allaying the feeling of animosity on the part of the colored people. Their attention, in this connection, was first called to the manner of instruction in the school. They noticed the sectional books in use, and urged upon the president the propriety of changing the tendency of the teaching. The aim of the instructors, they said, should not be to alienate the affections of the pupils from their country, and induce a feeling of opposition to the whites, but to cultivate kindly relations between the two. They had enormous power over those who controlled almost one-half the votes in the Empire State, since their pupils were eminently "clay in the hands of the potter." The pupils trained there would go forth and exercise a great influence on the others whom they might teach; and it was highly incumbent on the instructors to make faithful, devoted citizens of them.

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the philosophical¹ and chemical laboratory. Of the Knowles Industrial Building, likewise an individual gift to the institution, we have already spoken. The annual appropriation from the State has, until its recent discontinuance, invariably been confined to the payment of teachers' salaries.

Atlanta University is now in the twenty-first year of its corporate existence. During that period it has acquired a vested capital in lands, buildings, library, and valuable appurtenances fairly estimated at two hundred thousand dollars.² The college structures are four in number, consisting of the two buildings just mentioned, and the two dormitories, which are respectively designated as North Hall and South Hall. There is also a large barn on the premises. It was erected in 1882, and furnishes facilities for the development of the farm work of the University. These buildings are situated on high ground in the western part of the city of Atlanta, and are surrounded by about sixty acres of land belonging to the institution.

ATLANTA BAPTIST SEMINARY.³

This seminary, for the education of colored ministers and teachers in Georgia, is sustained chiefly by the American Baptist Home Mission Society, the headquarters of which are in New York. Established in 1867, it was located for a time in Augusta, under the name of the "Augusta Institute," where it struggled with many difficulties until 1871. At that time an unworthy party, Seigfried, by name, who was at its head, was dismissed; and the institution was organized in a more effective form by his successor in the office of principal, Rev. J. T. Robert, LL. D. Doctor Robert was a Southerner by birth, although long a resident in Ohio and Iowa, and had been strongly recommended to the society by the white Southern Baptist ministers as a suitable person for the conduct of the enterprise. Eight years of prosperity and progress followed, and, in 1879, the seminary was transferred to the capital of the State, at Atlanta, and now bears the name of Atlanta Baptist Seminary.

We are informed that during the ten years of Doctor Robert's administration, ending with 1881, three hundred and seventy-one students had received instruction in the school, of whom one hundred and forty-two contemplated teaching, and two hundred and twenty-nine had the ministry in view. Of the eighty students then in attendance, fifty or more

¹ Instruments for surveying and engineering purposes, and an excellent telescope, may be enumerated among the philosophical apparatus.

² Report of the Board of Visitors for 1885-86.

³ History of the Baptist Denomination in Georgia, with Biographical Compendium, etc. Compiled for the Christian Index. Atlanta, Ga., 1881. Page 242.

The Baptist Encyclopedia, by William Cathcart, D. D. Philadelphia, 1883. Pp. 47-8.

Catalogue for 1886-87.

were pastors or candidates for the ministry. According to the 1886-87 catalogue, the number in the seminary was one hundred and forty-six; eighteen being in the theological department, thirty-two studying for the ministry, and forty-two preparing to become teachers.

The present faculty consists of five instructors, of whom the Rev. Samuel Graves, D. D., is president. The studies pursued in the seminary are comprehended in the normal, preparatory, collegiate (which includes a classical and a scientific course), and theological departments. The theological course has been extended so as to embrace two years. A library is attached to the institution, which now contains upward of seventeen hundred volumes.

CLARK UNIVERSITY.¹

Founding of the University.—This institution is supported by the Freedmen's Aid Society, a charitable organization of the Methodist Episcopal Church. Bishops Clark and Haven were chiefly instrumental in founding it. From the former, in consideration of his distinguished labors in its behalf, the University takes its name. It was begun in 1869 as a primary school, with a department for the training of preachers. It was not chartered as a University until 1877. The college was located at Atlanta.² For the first few years it occupied a small building on Whitehall Street, and was afterward (in 1880) removed to its present desirable position at the southern end of Capitol Avenue.

In 1872 the institution passed under the control of the city, the understanding being that the latter would pay the teachers' salaries and furnish the necessary buildings. The other funds were then applied to the establishment of a theological department, in accordance with the wish of Bishop Clark, who had left, by will, several thousand dollars for that purpose. The city failed to comply with that part of its agreement providing for the erection of buildings, and new arrangements had to be made.

Through the hearty co-operation and generous contributions of its Northern friends, Clark University has been liberated from all embarrassment and placed upon a firm and excellent basis. It has fine college buildings,³ situated upon a tract of some four hundred acres of land

¹ Henderson's Commonwealth of Georgia, p. 279. Catalogues for 1885-86 and 1886-87.

² This city was chosen, as it "might give character and influence to our movement," writes A. W. Cummings (Early Schools of Methodism, p. 410); "for Atlanta is the gateway to the South, and exerts a controlling influence over it."

³ There are three of these structures. Chrisman Hall, a cut of which is here appended, was erected at a cost of twenty-seven thousand dollars, and was dedicated in 1880. It bears the name of Mrs. Eliza Chrisman, of Topeka, Kans., that lady having donated ten thousand dollars toward the building fund, the balance being raised by subscription in the North. The Gammon Theological Hall, opened in 1883, was completed and furnished at a cost of thirty thousand dollars. It is built of brick, with stone trimmings, and is one hundred and ten feet long by fifty-two feet wide, and is four stories high. Rev. E. H. Gammon, of Batavia, Ill., beside contributing eight thousand dollars to this object, has recently added a gift of two hundred thousand

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which it owns, in the suburbs of Atlanta. It also has a numerous and well-organized faculty, a comprehensive system of instruction, embracing, in addition to the collegiate, academic, normal, and grammar school courses, a school of theology, business and industrial departments, a college of music, and good philosophical apparatus and libraries.

The Theological School.—The theological school, which is pre-eminently the strong feature of the institution, is handsomely endowed and possesses a valuable library of over four thousand volumes. It receives students from nearly every Southern State.¹ The full theological course occupies three years; but partial courses of one or two years have been provided for those who are not able to pursue the regular classes. Graduates in the former case receive the degree of bachelor of divinity; in the latter, a certificate from the institution. Free tuition as well as free rooms are accorded to the regular members of the theological school.²

The Industrial Department.—The industrial department is also a specialty. Its excellence is indorsed by Dr. Atticus G. Haygood, who says that "Clark University is second only to Hampton³ in this line." The work, running through three years, includes carpentry, carriage construction, house-keeping, dress-making, printing, and shoe-making. Agricultural training is also afforded, and a nurse-training department has been recently opened under the direction of the resident physician, assisted by some of the best medical talent of the city.

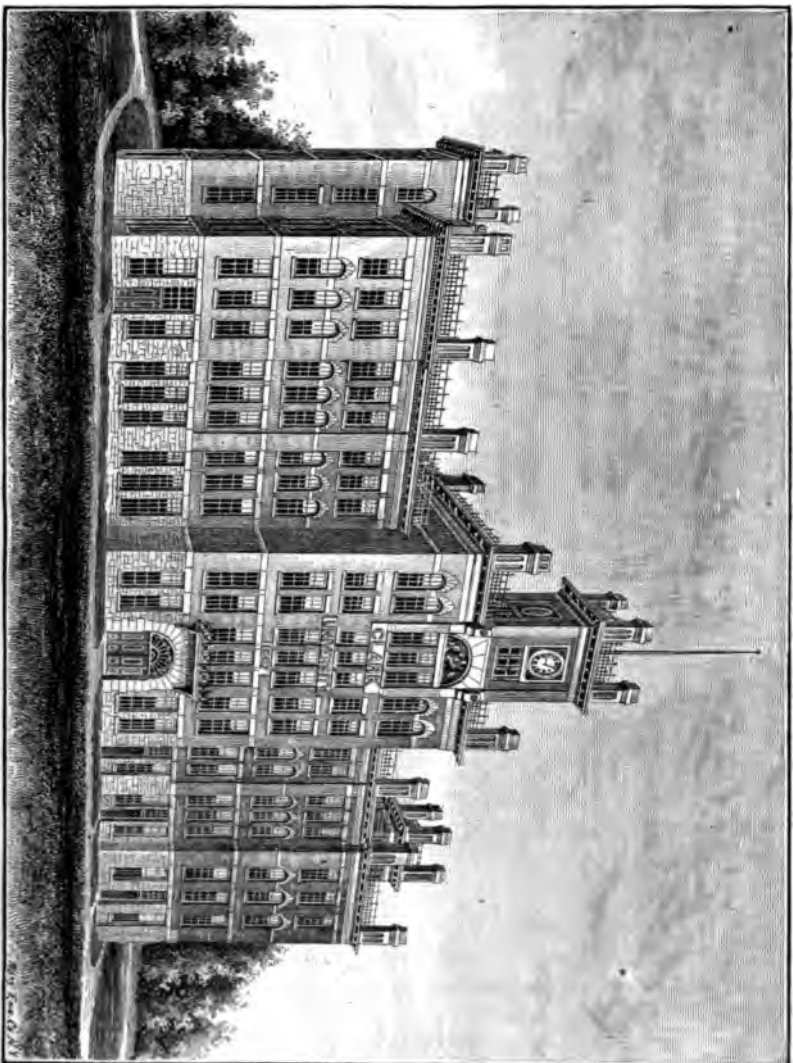
The course in the college of music is thorough as far as it goes. Pupils are there instructed in the principles and practice of playing upon the piano and the organ.

There are twenty teachers in the University faculty, exclusive of its dollars for the permanent endowment of the hall (Catalogue of 1886-87). Warren Hall is the new building just finished, and is intended for the use of the females. It contains a number of dormitories, a large reading-room, and a dining-room capable of seating several hundred persons. Twenty-seven thousand dollars were expended in its erection, one-half of which amount was supplied by Doctor Gammon. Ballard Hall, so called because Mr. Stephen Ballard, of Brooklyn, N. Y., donated toward its construction five thousand dollars, is still in process of erection.

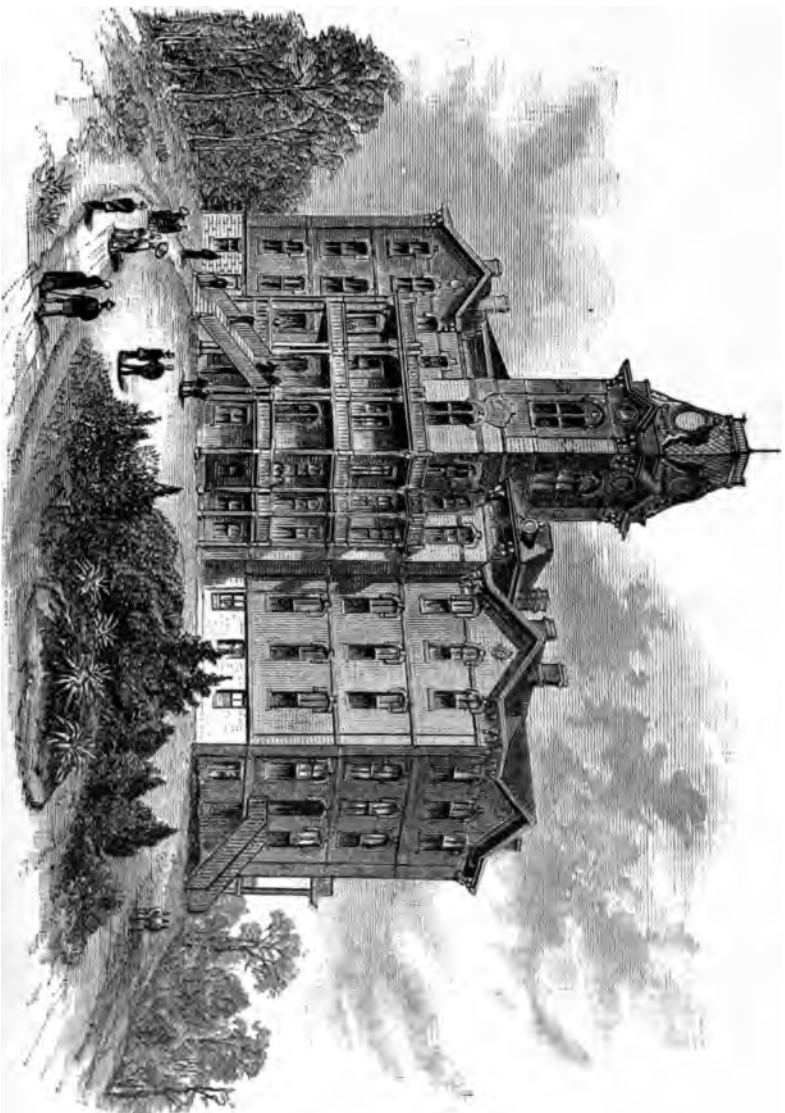
¹Nine Southern States were represented among the fifty-six students who were in attendance during the session of 1886-87.

²In proof of the general excellence of this department of Clark University, we quote the following from Dr. Atticus G. Haygood, who is already familiar to the public as the author of *Our Brother in Black*. He says: "It is to be questioned whether any single institution under the care of the Methodist Episcopal Church holds a place of importance and responsibility equal to that which is possible to the Gammon School of Theology. * * * It may well be questioned whether any single institution in the Southern States could not be better spared. * * * I think I may say without exaggeration that the Gammon School of Theology is, in many respects, the most important single experiment made by Protestantism in this country—so far as I know in any country—in the momentous matter of teaching and training colored preachers." See also Catalogue of Gammon School of Theology for 1888, pp. 3-9.

³The Hampton Normal and Agricultural Institute for colored and Indian youth in Virginia. (See Report of the Commissioner of Education for 1885, pp. 273, 275.)



CLARK UNIVERSITY, ATLANTA.



CHRISMAN HALL, CLARK UNIVERSITY.



president, Rev. E. O. Thayer, A. M. Three of these are connected with the Gammon School of Theology,¹ and eleven with the industrial department.

The catalogue of 1886-87 shows an attendance upon all the branches of Clark University of three hundred and twenty-two students.

There are five literary societies in the institution, prominent among which is the theological and debating society of the Gammon School of Theology.

SPELMAN SEMINARY.

This institution, designed especially for the instruction of colored women and girls, was opened in the basement of the Friendship Baptist Church, in the city of Atlanta, April 11, 1881, by the present principals, Misses Sophia B. Packard and Hattie E. Giles, who were commissioned by the Woman's American Baptist Home Mission Society of Boston. There the work of education was carried on for nearly two years.

The school began with eleven pupils. The aggregate number in attendance during the seven years of its existence has been over 3,580 pupils, six hundred and nine names appearing on the 1887-88 register.

The faculty at present comprises twenty-seven teachers, beside assistants; and the course of study embraces preparatory, normal, and scientific or higher normal courses. Musical and industrial departments are also connected with the seminary, and a training school for nurses, established in 1886, is among the advantages which it affords.

The present property of the school, which is valued at over eighty thousand dollars, consists of several acres of land, four double houses, Rockefeller Hall, and the large brick building which is now being erected to take the place of Union Hall, destroyed by fire in June of the past year (1887).

THE PAINE INSTITUTE.²

"They (the colored Methodist Episcopal churches) have no institution under their management for the education of those who are to occupy their pulpits and preside in their schools. Their preachers and teachers, if educated at all, must for the most part be educated by those who are not in sympathy with their organization. If they are to make any progress, or even to maintain their existence, they must provide for the education of those who are to take charge of their schools and religious congregations. They have neither the money to establish schools, nor the men competent to conduct them; and they look to us for aid."

Such was the language of the committee on education in the General Conference of the Methodist Episcopal Church South. It was to meet the necessities of the case, and to carry out the provision as introduced by the General Conference of 1882, that the Paine Institute

¹ This school has also eight special lecturers.

² This school was named in honor of Rev. Moses U. Paine, of Iowa, to whom it is indebted for an endowment fund of twenty-five thousand dollars.

and the development which has occurred, we are surprised and delighted at the tokens of benevolence, of order restored, of the recognition of relative rights, of domestic peace, of mental, moral, and political advancement, and of intellectual progress, which confront us on every hand. Among the factors which have brought about this happy condition, none is so potent as the liberal provision made at the general charge for the inauguration and good support of common schools, and for rendering a university education within the limits of the Commonwealth practically free to all who desire to avail themselves of it.

In the coat-of-arms of Georgia appear three emblematic columns, inscribed respectively with the words, "Wisdom, Justice, and Moderation," and supporting an arch upon which is engraven, in bold relief, the word "Constitution."

Rightly judging that the intelligence of the citizen and the education of the masses are indispensable prerequisites to the comprehension and maintenance of wise, just, and moderate views necessary for the understanding and conservation of all constitutional rights and privileges, the General Assembly and the people of Georgia have made, and are making, most praiseworthy efforts to promote the general good, and render learning, both primary and liberal, popular and accessible within the limits of the Commonwealth.

CHARLES EDGEWORTH JONES.

Augusta, Ga., June 11, 1888.



BUREAU OF EDUCATION
CIRCULAR OF INFORMATION NO. 5, 1888

INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION

IN

THE SOUTH

BY

REV. A. D. MAYO



WASHINGTON
GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE
1888

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LETTER.

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR,
BUREAU OF EDUCATION,
Washington, D. C., January 6, 1888.

SIR: The accompanying monograph, prepared at the request of the Bureau of Education by the Rev. A. D. Mayo, relates to the subject of industrial education in the South. For the past eight years Dr. Mayo has been engaged in a ministry of education through all the Southern States. With no official relations, and with the sole end in view of observing educational affairs in the South, together with all forms of service and labor found to be practical in the communities visited, with the most hearty co-operation of the leading educators and public men everywhere, and the most kindly reception by teachers and pupils, his opportunities of studying the situation have probably not been surpassed.

The great interest in the subject of the industrial education of both races through the school systems of the South, the extent to which this form of instruction has already been carried, the means available for its further development, and the practical ways of engrafting it upon the present school life of that region, have all been the subject of careful observation and anxious inquiry from the beginning of the ministry of Dr. Mayo.

The present monograph is not a discussion of scholastic methods, or an attempt to give a premature opinion on many important points now under advisement by the foremost teachers and educational authorities of the country. The author has assumed the more useful task of setting before the Southern people the reasons for the growing interest in industrial education through the whole country, and the special needs of this type of educational work in the development of the great resources and the organization of the labor system of the Southern States, with a brief account of the principal institutions that have already undertaken the work.

An important part of this essay is concerned with the consideration of the present condition of the educational facilities in the country districts, where a large majority of the children and youth of the South are living. Particular attention is invited to this portion of the monograph, which contains a variety of suggestions for awakening public interest

versity in which a people has ever been schooled since the dawn of history. Especially is this true of the past revolutionary epoch, whose results, at home and abroad, are already so apparent. In a civilization where every path to success in every realm of human life is thrown open to the humblest child, where every man is a sovereign and every woman "the power behind the throne," nobody can accurately say what the schools of any grade have or have not accomplished. For the people, directly or indirectly, make the schools, and their merits or failures are on the same line as achievement and disaster in every other department of American life. No American institution can be sentenced as the scape-goat of the national sins, and sent off into the wilderness under a curse. The people are the only scape-goats, and the people do not propose to abdicate at the summons of any earthly tribunal. Lord Macaulay, a generation ago, affirmed the profound truth that the foremost mind of every people uses the educational agencies at hand and, somehow, gets its training for life therefrom. Our human nature, like the all-surrounding air, "abhors a vacuum," and whatever American human nature does not find in the school-house, it makes haste to supply in any one of a hundred ways peculiar to itself. The pedant or narrow schoolman who fancies that American children and youth only learn what is included in "a course of study" and a text-book and is certified by "examination papers," will do great injustice; for here, as nowhere else, the educating influence of American life environs the school, supplies its deficiencies, and often makes its defects the suggestion of the most intense effort outside.

We are not, therefore, disposed to press the importance of Industrial Education in our country on the ground that our past educational systems have been a failure, and our present methods are working a widespread demoralization, especially among the industrial classes of our cities and populous districts. We fail to see the necessity, anywhere, of dropping one good thing when we pick up another, and believe a great injustice will be done by a judgment of this sort. Every intelligent friend of Industrial Education must acknowledge that the training and informing of the mind by good methods in any school is, to that extent, an outfit for the application of mental power to the work of life. Ignorance and mental stupidity are the bottom curse of individual or national industry. We hold that, while there have been the same defects in the schools as in every department of American affairs, they are entitled to a reasonable share of praise for that majestic development of industry which has made the Republic not only the richest, but incomparably the most active, enterprising, and progressive of nations in the development of national resources and the general enjoyment of comfortable living. Were it worth the while it could easily be shown that every American State, city, or locality is industrious, prosperous, and progressive in proportion to its interest in the schooling of *all* its children according to the best ideas and methods at hand.

Indeed, the new and wide-spread interest in Technical Instruction and the whole matter of Industrial Training is, in considerable degree, the outgrowth of those natural methods, especially of elementary instruction, which for the past twenty years have been gradually introduced into the superior schools of all parts of the country. Under different names—kindergarten, object teaching, normal methods—all included in the popular term, “the new education,” a prodigious advance has been made in the direction of a true theory of instruction and discipline for young children. The characteristic of “The New Education” is the attempt to train the faculties in their true order of development by those natural and divine methods whereby the infinite wisdom is schooling all men in the university of life. The logical outcome of all such work, when well done, is in the direction of the broadest and finest discipline for superior work. A great deal has been well done, and the thanks of the country are due to a large and increasing class of women teachers, who, with the patience, fidelity, enthusiasm, tact, skill, and instinctive knowledge of childhood peculiar to their sex, have done so much, in all ways, for the enlargement and humanizing of school life in general and the industrial tendency in particular. On them and all teachers who work in the spirit of these natural and divine methods of education the friends of industrial training must rely for the beginnings of their work in all classes of schools.

But the whole thoughtful side of the American people, within the past twenty-five years, has been wonderfully stirred by the rapid development of the resources of the country, in contrast with the inadequacy of organized labor to face the demand for their development. Since the close of the great War the illimitable western world, beyond the frontier, has been explored, interlaced with railroads, brought under the observation of experts, and, from the Mississippi to Alaska, spread out like a magical picture before the eyes of an astonished people. The vast central mountain realm of the East, from Harper's Ferry in Virginia almost to Montgomery in Alabama, as extensive as the German Empire, has been revealed as by the lifting of the mist, and its extraordinary resources for grazing, forestry, mining, and manufactures have, for the first time, been made known even to the people of the surrounding States. At the same time the American people have first come to an adequate conception of the vast realms of our Southland yet untilled—Yazoo valleys, Texas prairies, western Arkansas hills, boundless forests, countless miles of coast, with water power to whirl the wheels of numberless manufactures. And along with this revelation, more like a change of scene in the Arabian Nights' Entertainment than a sober reality, has come the realization of the incompetence of our labor system to deal with the stupendous task of the development of this new world, to say nothing of the improvement of what is now in hand. Of our sixty millions of people, any man who cares can find out how many millions of laborers are still among the ignorant and unskilled

class who can only struggle with what they have now undertaken, in constant peril of defeat and with neither hope nor ability for an aggressive industrial campaign. Of the seven millions of colored people, the main dependence of several States for labor, the majority are still but little way beyond the old time habits of work, and thousands of white native people in the same States have made little advance over former methods of labor and industry. The Northern States are swarming with ignorant and unskilled laborers from the lower planes of European life, and the attention of the country is rudely summoned to the impending danger from an even more dangerous class of immigration. Whatever praise may be accorded to American invention, intelligence, enterprise, and the upper region of skilled labor, the problem still confronts the economist and the statesman—how to train and organize the industrial army to march over and possess the promised land.

This conviction is sharply emphasized by the amazing development of labor-saving machinery within the same period. All reasoning on industrial, social, and political problems that does not include this most astonishing of all the revolutions and revelations of the ages—the effect of the inventions, discoveries, and applications of physical science within the past half century—is now “ancient history.” “The things that are seen are temporal, but the things that are not seen are eternal.” While the earth has trembled with the tramp of the most powerful armies ever marshalled and the whole outward political administration of mankind has been changed, there has gone forward, like the every-day miracle of Providence, this wondrous conquest of the powers of nature that almost explodes every former theory of the nature and capacity of man. Any clever graduate of a school of technology can now do a score of things that would have been as impossible to his grandfather as the miracles of antiquity, and the intelligent laborer of to-day represents sometimes the toil of a regiment of stalwart men a generation ago. It is simply pitiful to look upon the frantic efforts of the labor demagogue or “master workman,” fumbling with the impossible problem of making the unskilled mechanic the equal of the man who leads the powers of nature in his daily toil. The bottom charity of to-day is to convince every American boy and girl that the ignorant and unskilled person anywhere—the hod-carrier on his ladder, or the lady in her palace—is only a helpless child, at the mercy of the trained army of industry moving to the front to possess the earth. More and more the laborer who can not “make connection” with nature through the agency of machinery must fall to the rear, and in the midst of abounding wealth remain obscure and poor, defeated in the race for life.

The upshot of all this is that the industrial demand of the day is intelligence in the masses and skill in the leadership of labor in every department of American life. Nobody expects that the masses of laboring men and women can be made skilled laborers. But the masses can be gradually trained to the intelligence needful in meeting the new con-

ditions of labor, and the leaders of industry can only be found among those in whom large original faculties have been developed by the thorough training of the expert.

And when the country looks about for the way of doing this, it is only natural and wholly reasonable that it should ask : Can not the educational school system, now supported at an annual expense of \$150,000,000, and including ten millions of children and youth, be made in some degree the agency for this new training and organization of the industrial forces ? The question is so reasonable that the country " will not take No for an answer," however eminent may be the educational authority that pleads the negative. The demand for the new consideration and thorough organization of the industrial feature of our American educational systems is not visionary, impracticable, or in any way a disparagement of the value of what has already been achieved. No competent educator now denies that both moral and mental training, heart and head, must be fitly joined in every successful school. The time is rapidly approaching when no competent educator will either deny or disparage the training of the hand as the instrument of the heart and the head ; the joining of the executive to the moral and mental force in the schooling of every child.

Already this demand has met a response, as far as relates to the training of experts in all the mechanical trades, and, in less measure, in agriculture. Although the Government assignment of lands for the establishment of agricultural and mechanical colleges to all the States in 1862 appeared somewhat premature, it was yet none too early, and the gift has already borne abundant fruit. New and important schools for the training of experts in the mechanic and decorative arts are being established, by noble gifts, in every portion of the country, especially in the States most distinguished for their present educational facilities. It is now probably easier to persuade men of large wealth to give generously for this than for any class of educational establishments. In the secondary schools, especially the free high schools of the country, something has already been done towards the organization of a separate department of manual training, and, in some cases, its general introduction as a part of the schooling of all pupils. In the larger field of the industrial training of the masses of children who leave school at the age of twelve or thereabouts, many interesting experiments are under way, and all the improved methods of elementary education are taking on the industrial shape. Leading educators are studying this phase of the question with great care and an earnest desire to meet the demand of the country ; and if progress appears to be slow to the impatient advocate of the cause, it must be remembered that the wisest teacher best appreciates the obstinate conservatism of childhood, is most cautious in sudden changes, and guards most carefully the whole nature of the little one from premature stimulation, even in the most essential requirements.

With this general survey of the whole field, which seems not inappropriate as a point of observation, we proceed to a consideration of the South, its needs, opportunities, experiments, and achievements in this department of industrial education.

DISCUSSION OF SOUTHERN RESOURCES, ETC.

The considerations already noted apply with special significance to the majority of the sixteen States once classed as Southern; although the Southern people, in popular speech, now often include the border States under the general title, *the North*. Nowhere in the country has the discovery of vast material resources been hailed with such astonishment and enthusiasm as in several of these States. The old-time system of Southern agriculture left vast regions of mountain, mineral, and forest land untouched and very imperfectly known, while the enormous water-power of the rivers descending from the central highlands was but little used. An examination of the census fills one with amazement at the comparatively small area of land under cultivation in some of the oldest of these States. But the "times of this ignorance have passed away," and the leading classes of the Southern people are now thoroughly awake to the amazing natural wealth of their country, and the outside world always comes back from a tour of observation with figures of rhetoric as the only fit expression of what it has seen. With all due allowance for the enthusiastic temper and wonderful hopefulness of the Southern people, the writer of these pages has seen enough to verify the statements and opinions here expressed.

Nobody can look upon the magnificent natural advantages of Virginia without high expectations of the future of the Old Dominion. In the advantages which the State still possesses in her western and southwestern area are the materials for a greater prosperity than she ever knew; while her eastern rivers and harbors still invite the commerce of the world.

North Carolina, apart from an immense deposit of mineral wealth and vast water-power, has in her beautiful mountain region a field for stock-raising of indefinite extent, while her coast country may become the vineyard, truck farm, and fishing-ground of the populous Northeast. The capabilities of Florida are already sufficiently made known to need no description, and the rapid multiplication of farms and growth of cities in Georgia justifies the pride of its people.

Alabama, so long the home of quiet conservatism, is now in a blaze of excitement over the rapid discovery and improvement of her northern world of iron and coal; while, in the southeast, a new agricultural country, as large as the State of Connecticut, is coming out of the woods, and her coast and numerous rivers offer an extent of interior navigation hardly excelled by any State. The experts tell us that the new cotton region of Mississippi opened by the railway from Memphis to *Vicksburg*, and secured from overflow by improved levees, will produce

as much cotton as is now raised in all the States—leaving the old plantation country to be developed in the rising stock and dairy industry, and its vast forest realm, covering more than a third of the State, to be developed in the near future. Louisiana only requires a new adjustment of its leading agricultural interest, and better defence against its turbulent waters, to become a garden of beauty and fertility; and the industrial department of Tulane University, if well supported by the people, will make New Orleans, in a generation, the centre of ornamental manufactures for the increasing populations of which it is the natural metropolis. Texas can be safely left to the enthusiasm of its own progressive class for due publication through Christendom. Arkansas, already one of the most substantial and prosperous States of the Southwest, has a western region fitly described as Vermont removed to a southern latitude, while no State would profit more by a vigorous system of river improvement. Tennessee is not surpassed by any Southern State in her natural advantages, indeed is three States in one, with four of the most prosperous cities of the South. East Tennessee is a sort of Southern New England. The five border States need no “boom,” and nothing but reactionary economics and social class prejudice can hold back the enterprising portion of their people from the splendid future already in their sight. South Carolina, the greatest sufferer by the War, has displayed an energy in education and in the enlargement and variety of her industry almost unparalleled under the circumstances, and Charleston is doubtless in better shape for future growth than before the high wind and the great shake of the past three years. It is not necessary to build up the fabric of Southern prosperity on any imaginary downfall or decay of Northern enterprise. The mighty North is still only on the threshold of a grander future than it even now appreciates. The industries of the South, with a wise political and social direction, at best, will hardly keep pace with the growing demands of its own population. The South is as large as Europe west of Russia, and the developed South, with its Territorial annex, will easily support twice the population of the present Union.

But over against this picture, in justice to the South itself, must be set the honest statement of the peculiar disabilities in its system of labor, lack of capital, and the great deficiency in industrial training in the majority of its laboring people. It is not necessary to exaggerate these defects as they doubtless are often exaggerated; sometimes by political prejudice and the impatience of the Northern enterprising class most inclined to look Southward for a field of investment, but oftener by the profound ignorance of the actual status of Southern life which still involves even the intelligent masses of the North, and makes both the political and religious press a sort of drop-curtain on which is painted a thoroughly misleading picture of this entire section of the country.

The South is also misrepresented by a class at home, sometimes influential in public and social affairs, which feels called upon to resent

every moderate demonstration of its malignity, which by its absurd boastfulness it stirs up at home and creates prejudice abroad. Clearly, the writer of this monograph has no interest, either for optimistic or for pessimistic views of Southern progress and opportunity or the disparagement of the Southern people, which, in both races, only needs to be better known to be justly appreciated for its present achievements and congratulated on the splendor of a future which may be seen by some who now read this. The picture here presented of the labor situation in the South is that which forces itself upon every fair-minded and intelligent observer from beyond its borders, and is held by every competent man of large business capacity and broad and patriotic views encountered in the writer's experience of eight years in every Southern State.

Of the eighteen millions of the Southern people, seven millions are colored and of a race only twenty-five years emancipated from slavery and less than three hundred years out of the abject barbarism of the Dark Continent. Apart from moral and political considerations, every impartial observer must realize that, in the period before 1860, the Negro made greater progress towards civilization than any people known to history in a time as brief. He learned the three fundamental conditions of modern life—steady and persistent work, and the language and religion of the foremost people of Christendom. Whatever may be said or thought to his disparagement, his progress during his twenty-five years of freedom has justified the reasonable hopes of his judicious friends. No well-informed person can deny the significant fact that every year a larger number of the Negroes are becoming independent land-owners, living in comfortable homes, in good family life, getting the elements of knowledge, and "growing" a genuine superior class, characterized by industry, economy, intelligence, and morality, whose influence is everywhere felt on the masses below. The Southern Negro now owns from one to two hundred million dollars—the fruit of his first generation of freedom. And, although there are still plenty of people who deny his capacity for the higher industrial occupations, yet the Negro is doing, with fair success, everything his critics insist he cannot do, and his ability for industrial development is nowhere better appreciated than among the leading experts and wisest economists of the States that know him best. Perhaps it will turn out that the greatest advantage of the Negro is that he is the latest comer on the threshold of modern civilization; that his past has been free from the awful calamities of war, pestilence, and famine, whose grim ghosts still haunt the dreams of every European people; and that he begins his new career in an age of light, philanthropy, and economic science, a citizen of the world's great republic, among a people who are bound to him by the strongest of all ties—companionship in the home, industrial dependence, and community of religion.

But all this can not shut the eyes of men that see things as they are to the actual condition of this great and rapidly increasing body, considered as an industrial force competent to wrestle with the gigantic fact of the Southern need of material development. To talk now of the advantage of an ignorant and docile peasant class as an important element of American life, is to talk to the winds. The negro will not be especially ignorant half a century hence, and the more he knows, the less of a stolid European peasant he will become. His ignorance, indifference, indolence, shiftlessness, superstition, and low tone of morality are now prodigious hinderances to Southern development, involving the great low country, where he swarms, in a condition which no agricultural people can permanently endure—an effectual bar to the coming in of a superior class, whose enterprise and capital might rehabilitate the land; while every considerable town and city has a glut of the lower strata, and domestic service is involved in such confusion and annoyance that the Southern housekeeper is the most sorely afflicted of all her troubled sisterhood in civilized lands.

A considerable class of white labor through large regions of the South is only superior by the native superiority of the white race or its hereditary training through centuries of civilization. While agriculture, which must for many years be the overwhelming interest of the South, is everywhere improving, especially in the uplands, and by the skill and enterprise of a growing class of skilled agriculturists, the immense mountain world, inhabited by a million white people, still lies in the shadow, and thousands of hard-working farmers are struggling with the almost hopeless problem of seeking prosperity by antiquated methods of work and unenterprising habits of life. The rising manufactures of the South will soon absorb the class of the poorer white people, now at work as operatives, to their own great advantage and the advantage of the community, and the question of training the colored people for such occupation is already upon the managers of the mills. The time is past when the Southern white people are justly open to the charge of "laziness." Considering the conditions of climate, the lack of diversified occupation, and the dreadful collapse of health and spirits that followed the superhuman effort of the War period, they are working with commendable vigor and facing the new situation in a manner worthy the American name. Too many of their superior young men are swarming the towns and going to the Northwest for the rapid development of affairs at home, and their places are not supplied, as in the old Northern States, by a prodigious inflow from abroad, whose second generation is coming to the front in many ways for the upbuilding of the old waste places. The women of the South, as a body, have proved themselves worthy of all praise in the past years of trial. The younger women of all classes are a most hopeful, active, and progressive element in education, religion, and the splendid crusade for temperance and public morals. But while New England boasts of two hundred ways by which

an instructed woman may earn a respectable living outside of school-teaching, there are not ten avenues of profitable occupation open to the white girls of the South. Every Southern State is now making great efforts to attract the only sort of immigration of real value. Nothing would so complicate the Southern situation as the swarming in of large bodies of ignorant European people, whose hatred of the negro would precipitate labor difficulties, with impending peril of social war. Indeed, the southern European immigration now directed to some of the Gulf States is too much of this sort. But the industrial disabilities of the present are the chief reason why the better sort of immigration, outside flourishing towns, is sporadic and has in no considerable way affected the country. The new Southwest, between the Missouri and the Colorado Rivers, twenty years ago a new country, has received a great movement that has developed its resources and is rapidly making southern Missouri, western Arkansas, and northern Texas one of the most attractive portions of the country.

All this in no way impeaches the fact of the genuine progress of all portions of the South. The native Southern people, of both races, are increasing faster than the old North, perhaps than the new West. Everybody, with ordinary exceptions, is working harder, and whole classes of people, once living in leisure, now swell the industrial throng. All people, save the vicious and idle, are living more comfortably than ten years ago. But still the problem is there. With boundless resources, peculiar advantages of climate, its intelligent people awake to all the opportunities of modern life; outside the professional politician class, its white people, almost exclusively of the old American stock, thoroughly patriotic and committed to American ideas; its laboring classes are yet so hampered by an appalling illiteracy that is itself a national peril, by unintelligent and often primitive methods of work, and all the unspeakable botheration in every department of life that comes therefrom, that this whole section of the country stands waiting at the beautiful gate, only yet ajar, that opens to the Promised Land.

STATEMENT OF SOUTHERN ACHIEVEMENTS IN POPULAR EDUCATION.

The "bottom question" in Southern life is neither political, in the partisan or economic sense, nor social, even including "the race question," half as much as it is the educational question, in the broadest sense of the term. First, the training of the masses of both races in that elementary common schooling in knowledge, discipline, and the general awakening of mind which has been the largest factor in the development of the North and the foundation of the present power of Germany. is now the hope of liberalism in Great Britain, the promise of the future in France and Italy and Austria, and the mighty agency that within a short generation has wheeled Japan into the line of civilized nations. With all forbearance and personal respect for people of every sort who now stand in the way of the effective common schooling of the

Southern masses, it must be said that the best friend of that section is the portion of the educational American public that is pushing forward the movement to plant a good district school for six months in the year everywhere in the open country, and a good graded school for eight or nine months, with opportunity for training teachers, in every village of these sixteen States.

Along with this goes, logically, every wise effort for the improvement of the quality and enlargement of the opportunity of the secondary and higher education—enough of it to train the superior class of colored youth for teachers and for the professional and wise general leadership of their people, and especially its development to meet the rising demand of the young Southern white women, who are now fully awake to the desire for the best culture offered to woman in the new time.

The writer of this monograph insists on this development of general education as the fundamental condition of any effective system of industrial training among the more ignorant classes of the South. A boy reared in an intelligent and enterprising community, his whole environment a stimulant to mental activity, may be trained to industrial skill with a moderate allowance of schooling, though here the advantage is always, other things equal, with the most thoroughly educated youth. But the attempt to polish a brick-bat, on the theory that it is a block of marble, is sanity itself compared with the incredible folly of attempting to train several millions of people in Southern fields and homes to skilled or intelligent labor without the development of mental activity and common information as a basis of operation. When we are told that the ignorant laborer is only spoiled by education, the real statement should be that the huddling of crowds of children for a few weeks in the year in comfortless quarters, under stupid or vicious teachers, is not education, even though the majority get hold, in some way, of a little reading, bad writing, and small figuring. The training in a good school, in wholesome quarters, by a competent teacher, who also represents the moralities of life, is always and everywhere an industrial, no less than a religious, social, and political uplift.

As fast as this is secured, judiciously going along with it, the South needs a vast system of practical, wise, gradual industrial training of the masses, and the foundation of schools of agriculture, mechanics, skilled house keeping, and decorative art, to supply experts and the higher order of skilled workmen of both sexes. The writer has no time for serious argument with any theorist who still holds to the old-time European idea of an ignorant and contented multitude governed and steered by a class trained for permanent leadership. It is enough to say that every progressive civilized nation has turned its back on that social scheme, and the success of every people is in precise ratio to its achievement in the training of the masses in that instruction and discipline, mental, moral, and executive, which is the only true significance of education.

It now remains to inquire what the Southern people are doing in this department of industrial training for an expert and skilled class, and what for the promotion of enlightened industry among the masses of both races, with some suggestions for the furtherance of this good work under the peculiar circumstances of Southern life.

INDUSTRIAL SCHOOLS AND MANUAL AND INDUSTRIAL TRAINING IN
PUBLIC SCHOOLS AND PRIVATE ACADEMIES.

It is not the purpose of this essay to set forth the beginnings of Industrial Education in the Southern States before 1860. Every experiment in this, as in other departments of education, had been tried, at different periods, in these Commonwealths. Here, as elsewhere, Thomas Jefferson displayed his remarkable genius as the prophet of the American system of instruction now universally adopted. His plan for the education of the people of Virginia, a century ago, included almost every feature of the present school life of that State, not excepting the industrial training of colored youth, so well done at Hampton. Manual labor schools had their usual run in the South, with the same result as in the North. A good deal of valuable instruction was given in the various military institutes, from which the South has recently derived great advantage in the growing demand for engineers and leaders in its new manufacturing operations.

But the real "new departure" dates from the year 1862, when Congress, in the midst of a war for the preservation of the Union, granted large bodies of public lands to each of the States for the establishment of agricultural and mechanical colleges. This law permitted the introduction of a moderate college curriculum into these institutions. Gradually the returning States accepted this gift, and all of them have made some endeavor to utilize it, most of them for the benefit of youth of both races. The method of applying the fund has been twofold.

Ten of the sixteen States have combined the agricultural and mechanical with the State university. Several of the States used the income to rehabilitate their State university, or to establish that type of college for the first time. The State of Kentucky, after various experiments, has established her agricultural, mechanical, and normal college on an independent basis; but the remainder of the ten have persisted in this combination of regular university and industrial education in the same institution. The result of this experiment can hardly be said to be satisfactory, as far as industrial training is concerned. The South still holds in great reverence the old ideas of classical instruction, and it was inevitable that, at first, the industrial department should fall to the rear or be very gradually developed, especially where this was the only university in the State subsidized by public funds. Within the past few years, however, and notably since the great awakening of Southern *educators* by the World's Industrial and Cotton Centennial Exposition

at New Orleans, in 1884-85, this department of all these colleges and universities has received more careful attention.

The State University of Missouri is doing excellent work with a model farm and in connection with the agricultural societies of the State. The Legislature of South Carolina has just made an important addition to the State University for its improvement in this direction. The Tennessee State University, at Knoxville, will find in its new president, Dr. Dabney, an intelligent and energetic friend of this cause. The same is true of the University of Arkansas. The National Government has recently given to the University of Louisiana a valuable donation in the permanent use of the Government barracks and lands at Baton Rouge. North Carolina is offering improved facilities at Chapel Hill. Delaware, Maryland, West Virginia, Florida, and Georgia have done enough to encourage the hope that their future use of this fund will be satisfactory to the growing demand of the people.

The States of Virginia, Texas, Mississippi, Kentucky, and Alabama now support agricultural and mechanical colleges separate from their State universities. Of those visited by the writer, the institutions in Mississippi and Alabama, at Starkville and Auburn respectively, seemed to have grasped the situation most firmly. President Stephen D. Lee, of the Mississippi Agricultural College, is at work with great vigor and enthusiasm on the problem of diversified farming, fruit culture, the development of valuable native grasses, stock-raising, and the application of the new methods in the dairy. Already a great interest has been awakened in the State, and Mississippi may yet find in this direction a relief from her present embarrassment of worn-out cotton lands, with new wealth in the culture of fruits. The Alabama Agricultural and Mechanical College has a faculty not surpassed in the South, and its able president, Dr. W. Le Roy Broun, has added to the farm a department of manual training very attractive to the students, while the general instruction is of a high order. The reckless assertion sometimes made, that this grant of Government lands has been wasted or misused, is disproved even in the States that have made the least of it, and signally refuted by the present condition and enlightened plans of several of these agricultural and mechanical colleges for white youth.

One of the most interesting experiments in this direction is the recent establishment of the industrial college for white girls at Columbus, Miss. Through the generous subsidy of the State, with local aid from the city and county, this institution, which includes academic, normal, and industrial departments, and offers free instruction to several hundred young women, has begun its good work under flattering auspices. Every girl is compelled to include some industrial branch in her course of study, and this side of the institution has been emphasized in a very hopeful way. A few years of careful administration will make this a model school of its kind, which will be copied in every Southern, possibly in some of the Northern States. Some of the Southern State agri-

cultural and mechanical colleges admit women, although co-education in the South has not advanced beyond the experiment in a few of the higher institutions.

Nearly all the Southern States have made the attempt to give the colored people the benefit of a portion of this national fund. Virginia led by appropriating \$10,000 a year to the Hampton Institute for colored pupils, and the Government of the United States has added a subsidy in behalf of a considerable number of Indians. It is unnecessary to rehearse the splendid work done at Hampton. On this point, in full sight of the landing place of the first ship that brought the African savage to American shores, now rises a village of educational and industrial buildings, many of them erected by the students, with valuable and thorough instruction given to boys and girls in the various departments of agricultural, mechanical, and household industry. The visitor to the leading colored schools of the South often meets the graduates of this, in some respects, the most striking of the great mission schools established for the superior education of colored youth by Northern funds, occasionally assisted by the National Government.

There are now perhaps fifty of these institutions, several of them offering facilities for collegiate and professional study, of the grade of the high school of the better sort, containing in the neighborhood of twenty thousand pupils, almost entirely under the instruction of white teachers representing the various Christian bodies of the Northern States. Their buildings and facilities for study are generally excellent, and the style of instruction is equal to institutions of similar grade elsewhere. They are now all taking on the industrial department in farming, gardening, skilled housekeeping, printing, and a variety of mechanical trades. Several of them are doing a thriving business in the sale of manufactured articles. Mississippi and South Carolina contribute, through their Legislatures, for the support of these schools, while Texas, Louisiana, Mississippi, Alabama, and possibly some other States support similar schools under State supervision. The most interesting of these is the normal school at Tuskegee, Ala. Here, in the midst of a dense colored population, on the borders of an old, cultivated Southern town, the visitor finds a group of a dozen buildings and an enthusiastic crowd of several hundred pupils, under the exclusive management of teachers of their own race. As demonstrating the feasibility of such an arrangement, under State supervision, this remarkable school is a model, coming nearer a self-supporting community, in respect to diversified industries, perhaps, than any similar school in the country. Some of the States appear to have given their colored population no benefit from this national fund, though it is believed that all, in some way, are now encouraging the higher industrial training of colored youth in some form.

Nothing has more beautifully illustrated the growing friendliness of the Northern Christian people than this investment of several millions

of dollars, within the past twenty years, for the academical, collegiate, and normal instruction of colored youth in the South. While the Southern people themselves have wrought with such heroic purpose to rehabilitate their system of colleges and academies prostrated by the War, and have planted, in every State, for the first time, the American system of common schools, free to every child, and developed them according to their ability, this important and expensive work of training the superior colored youth for teachers, clergymen, and leaders in the rising industries of the country has been largely carried on by bountiful donations from the Northern people, supplemented by national aid and tuition fees of the students. The advantage of combining industrial with scholastic training, as it is in all these valuable schools, can hardly be overrated; indeed, some of them, in this respect, are models that might be copied in the most cultivated States of the Union. In time all these schools will inevitably pass under the control of the Southern people, as most of them now include men of local influence in their boards of management. No more valuable contribution to the industrial and social progress of the country has been made than this, which is thoroughly appreciated by all persons in a condition to understand its present influence and its future outcome. The graduates of these schools are everywhere becoming the leaders of the colored people into a higher intelligence, morality, and skilled industry. The donation of the Slater Fund of \$1,000,000 is now administered by Dr. Atticus Haygood, of Georgia, as secretary, in a way to stimulate and give intelligent direction to the best methods of industrial discipline and instruction in the place where such training bears the best fruit—among the teachers of the two millions of colored children of the South.

But the finest work in the training of experts and the organization of instruction in manual training, drawing, and decorative art is found in a number of important schools, established by large private benefactions, to some extent supplemented by local contributions. In the city of Baltimore is found one of the oldest of these in the Maryland Institute—a first-class school of industrial and decorative art and architecture, in its day and evening classes including several hundred pupils, supported by city, State, and private aid, and tuition fees, under the superintendence of President Otto Fuchs. One of the McDonogh schools was established in Baltimore, and offers a practical training to a large number of children. In the direction of the relations of scientific instruction to industrial training, Johns Hopkins University is doing a valuable work, and its eminent president, Dr. D. C. Gilman, is one of the foremost advocates of the good cause. In Baltimore, Washington, St. Louis, and other cities of the South several of the higher classes of Catholic seminaries have done excellent work of this sort, whose exhibit at New Orleans, in 1884, received the highest commendation from the United States Commissioner of Education in his valuable Report, which may

here be mentioned as one of the most elaborate literary contributions to the educational progress of the South.

The city of Washington, itself, with its Congressional Library, National Museum, Bureaus of Education and Agriculture, Patent Office, and the various industrial features of other departments of the Government, is rapidly becoming the great national university. It is impossible to estimate the educational influence of Washington on the South, which naturally looks to the political metropolis for leadership in building up its new educational structure, and that influence is all on the side of industrial education. Could the Bureau of Education be enabled, by the wisdom of Congress, to establish a great model museum, where the finest methods of industrial training in all countries could be illustrated, the impetus to this movement in the South would be prodigious, and no money would pay a better investment in the development of its natural resources. The Agricultural Bureau may be easily made, through its handling of experimental stations, the most influential agency of its kind in the country, and the new National Library should include a complete department of the literature of industrial education.

In the State of Virginia is found one of the most valuable of the industrial schools of the country, in the Miller Institute, endowed with \$1,000,000, under the supervision of the State. Its buildings, grounds, and shops offer excellent facilities for the instruction of a large number of white boys. The most competent visitors to this institution, located in Albemarle County, are loud in praise of its superior management. Some of the higher institutions of learning in this State are also working, on scientific lines, in this direction.

At St. Louis is found, in the manual training school and polytechnic and art departments of Washington University, one of the most valuable organizations of industrial and artistic culture in the Union. Professor Woodward, of the manual training and polytechnic schools, by common consent has given to the whole country a working scheme for a department of manual training in all free, high, and academical schools. He has shown that all the academical studies, including preparation for college, can be successfully combined with some hours a day of hand-work and drawing. There is no reason why every high and superior academical school in the South should not establish an elective department of this sort, even if in a small beginning. The expense of the foundation must be met by the friends of this department; but with expert management there is little doubt that, in the end, the superior attraction of a school thus furnished will more than repay the original outlay.

In several States south of the border, especially in the more flourishing cities, the attention of leading educators is attracted to the various forms of industrial training. One of the most hopeful of recent movements is the establishment of the School of Technology for white youth, at Atlanta, Ga., by the Legislature of that State. In October of the

present year this school will open under the Presidency of Dr. Hopkins, late of Emory College, one of the ablest representatives of advanced collegiate and industrial education in the South. The observation of the writer of this monograph encourages the belief that in the near future every important city of this section will afford facilities for this department of education. The flourishing school of Rev. Toomer Porter, of Charleston, S. C., where several hundred white boys are educated, largely by contributions gathered from a wide source, has a valuable course in industrial training, and the Military Institute of Charleston, with some of the public charities, is working that way. Vanderbilt University, at Nashville, affords increasing facilities of the same sort. There is the usual supply of flourishing business colleges in all the leading Southern cities, and in several of them associations for the promotion of industrial and decorative art have been formed.

But the most interesting and significant of all Southern movements for the combination of industrial with the secondary and higher education is found in Tulane University, in the city of New Orleans, La. This institution, already in the number of its students one of the largest in the country, was established four years since, through the gift of one million five hundred thousand dollars by Paul Tulane, a retired merchant of that city, and now includes the former law and medical schools of New Orleans, with the University of Louisiana as its academical department. Originally established for white boys, it has recently been enabled, by the munificence of two ladies, to include a college for the higher instruction of girls and a valuable free library. President William Preston Johnston and the trustees and faculty of Tulane University have displayed remarkable wisdom in its organization and management. With full appreciation of the great needs of Louisiana for popular education, the new university touches every spring of instruction. In its free dispensation of normal instruction for the teachers of New Orleans, its support of an elaborate system of free lectures on a variety of topics, its collection of a good museum and library, its accessibility to all classes, it is assuming the natural leadership of popular education in Louisiana. The writer believes it is the only university of the first class that has had the courage to make manual training and industrial drawing a compulsory exercise, through its entire academical and freshman college classes. The industrial department, under the management of Professor Ordway, formerly of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, and a corps of able assistants from the Massachusetts State Normal Art School, with possibly one exception, is the most extensive and best furnished in the Southern States. Through its college and a variety of evening classes for men, women, and mechanics, and frequent courses of practical lectures to associations of workingmen; its society for the promotion of industrial and decorative art, and its school of artistic culture in the girls' Sophia Newcomb College, it is becoming the most beneficent agency in the Southwest in the development of

what may be, in the near future, one of the most prominent features in the life of New Orleans. This city, so wonderfully placed by nature as the metropolis of one of the most richly endowed portions of the Union, with a large population of French descent, inheriting all the aptitudes of the home stock, and an unusual number of the ablest class of the colored folk, can not fail, under its present leadership, to become, at no distant day, a great centre of decorative, ornamental, and artistic production, similar to the leading manufacturing cities of France.

An excellent beginning in manual training has been made at Emory College, Oxford, Ga. Here is found a school of mechanics, which is gaining reputation also as an actual manufacturing establishment, supplying orders for superior workmanship. This monograph does not pretend to give a complete account of all even of the notable establishments of this sort in the South. The rising manufacturing, mining, and lumber interest of the country in many ways is working in the direction of skilled industry. A good factory of any sort, under a broad and humane management, which includes the schooling of children and the "breaking in" of numbers of poor and depressed people into profitable work, is now one of the most beneficent agencies in the new development of Southern affairs. At Columbus and Augusta, Ga.; Graniteville, S. C.; Birmingham and Anniston, Ala.; Natchez, Miss.—indeed in all the rising manufacturing centres of the entire South—the writer of these pages has been happy to welcome a powerful ally of the new Southern movement for universal education. The same may be said of the vast railroad interest, which, through the establishment of centres of manufacturing industry, and often through the enlightened beneficence of corporations that have demonstrated the possession of a soul, has administered to the same popular need. The South has turned its face towards industrial training for experts and the leaders of skilled labor for both sexes and both races, and there is no probability that it will face backwards,—rather are the signs of steady development more auspicious with every new year.

But while the higher forms of industrial education which concern the training of experts and skilled laborers are in a hopeful line of development in the Southern States, the corresponding enterprise of lifting up the great mass of illiterate and unskilled to intelligent and more effective laborers, as far as instruction in schools is concerned, is in its earliest stages. But the zealous friends of manual training must remember that in a country like ours the word education has taken on a new meaning. Society itself, as it becomes more vital, intelligent, and moved by stimulating influences, is often the best school for developing any feature of the national life. Nowhere is this fact so apparent as in many portions of the South. The sixteen Southern States cover an area as large as Europe west of Russia, inhabited by nearly 20,000,000 of people. The South is still a rural country, away from the border having but one city of 100,000 people, its oldest State gathering not

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one-eighth its population in towns of 2,000 and upwards. Many of these States are sparsely populated, and there are still large districts of country remote from rapid transit. An American people thus situated is not apt to subside into the stolid contentment of a European peasantry, but, in various ways, endeavors to overcome the disadvantages of the situation. The Southern people are remarkably social, and no portion of the country is so largely educated by conversation, friendly intercourse and public speech. There is now a great Hegira of enterprising young men from the most remote rural districts to the towns and cities of the North and Southwest, and every boy or girl who leaves home creates a new bond with the great moving world outside. In this way a great deal that in more crowded communities depends upon schools is partially obtained in these natural ways. The World's Industrial and Cotton Centennial Exposition at New Orleans, in 1884-85, was felt in every Southern community. Thousands of people, of all ages and both races, carried home the wondrous story, and for years it will be rehearsed, always to the awakening of new interest in every department of industrial life. The splendid exhibit of industrial-school work, domestic and foreign—the finest ever made in the country—aroused the educational mind of the whole South to an intense interest and inquiry, which in time can not fail to produce remarkable results.

But when we speak of the industrial training of the Southern masses in schools, we must bear in mind the present conditions of popular education. For it can not be too often repeated that the only substantial basis for industrial training is what is generally included in the instruction of a good common school. If this school represents the new educational methods, all the better. There has been of late in some quarters a disposition to magnify the results of the common school movement in the South, until an impression prevails which entirely misrepresents the real situation. It is true that no people under similar circumstances have made such progress in popular education as these sixteen States during the past twenty years. But the work attempted was so vast, the difficulties so great, and the resources so limited, that it is no disparagement to tell the sober truth in regard to the actual status. In brief, there are now 6,500,000 children and youth in these States, of legal school age, between six and twenty. Of these, in 1880, 35 per cent. of white and 70 per cent. of colored between the ages of 10 and 14, and 69 per cent. of colored and 18 of white between 15 and 20, were unable to write. Affairs have somewhat improved in the past few years, but still this vast number of children and youth as a body require a good common school six months in the year as their least creditable outfit, not only for the duties of citizenship, but as a basis for anything that may be called industrial training. The schools are in session from three to four and five months in the year. Not more than one-half of these 6,500,000 are "enrolled," and a smaller number is in regular attendance in proportion to the whole than in more

avored communities. A great deal of the teaching in country, and especially in colored, schools is of a low grade. A growing class of graded schools in towns and cities are conducted by the best methods, and nearly all the larger cities have good systems of schooling for both races. But nine-tenths of the Southern people live in the open country, and Southern school-men alone can appreciate the disadvantages of the situation. When the Southern people are urged to "put their own shoulders to the wheel" and give up expectation of outside help, the fact revealed by the forthcoming Report of the Bureau of Education that the Southern Atlantic group of States is taxing itself on its own valuation within one-fifth of a mill on the dollar as much as the Northern Atlantic group, the wealthiest States in the Union, while it is able to give even to those who attend school less than half the annual sum given by the Northern group, rises as a warning to undue expectation. The plain fact of the case is, that unless the entire South can in some way, within the coming fifteen years, obtain twice as much money for popular education as to-day, its schools can hardly keep pace in their present shape with the growing demand, and several millions of children will be crowded up to the threshold of American citizenship either illiterate, or with the most meagre outfit for life in the new Republic.

We need not, then, be surprised at the slow progress that industrial education has made in Southern elementary, or even the ordinary private and academical schools. Outside of sporadic cases of mission work among the colored and poorer classes of the white people—of which there is probably more than is supposed—this instruction is found only in the graded schools of a few cities, and even there only in its beginning.

The city of Baltimore supports an industrial school, in connection with its public school system, with 150 pupils, which makes a creditable showing, and drawing has been introduced into the public schools. Last year Congress appropriated \$5,000 for an experiment in the public schools of Washington, which is divided between the white and colored pupils. Thirteen hundred white youth are now instructed, in several buildings set apart, in woodwork and cooking, with gratifying success, and the arrangements for colored pupils will be organized in due time, although at present such instruction is given only from two to four hours per week and is not compulsory. Louisville, Ky., has been at different times a good deal interested in this question, but we do not learn that much progress has been made. The public schools of St. Louis are, perhaps, not excelled in kindergarten work and drawing, and other large cities and towns in Missouri are working on the same line, with their leading school men thoroughly interested in discussing the feasibility of the undertaking. Industrial drawing is being introduced in several of the graded schools of the Southern cities and *the normal schools* now established in several States. The summer in-

stitute for teachers is bringing to the South many of the leading educators of the Union, whose influence is in this direction. The spring and summer Chautauqua assemblies at Monteagle, Tenn., and De Funiak Springs, Fla., include a course of instruction in skilled house-keeping and some other branches of industrial training, and it may be that sewing is taught in some of the public, as it certainly is in many of the mission and private schools for the Negroes.

CONSIDERATION OF MEANS AND METHODS OF AIDING, PROMOTING,
AND IMPROVING SUCH TRAINING.

We now come to the practical question, What can be done by the teachers and friends of industrial education through the South in furtherance of this great enterprise, bringing the hand into permanent and vital relationship with the head and the heart in training its six million children and youth?

The first condition of success is to cherish no illusions; face the situation with courage and truthfulness; take hope from the achievements of the past twenty years; begin at the beginning and work in that "never hasting, never resting" way that brings all good things to pass. Remember that, after the great and praiseworthy efforts of the past twenty years, only half the children and youth of these sixteen States are in school at all, and less than half enjoy an average of four months' annual schooling, while the number of years of attendance, especially for boys, is shorter than in any other portion of the Union. Remember, also, the comparatively small number of these children and youth who are gathered in graded schools in villages and cities, and that even in the North the discussion of methods of industrial training for country district schools is just beginning. But nine-tenths of the children of the South are still educated in the country, and they are in greatest need of all that can be done in this direction. And when we consider the small number of teachers, anywhere, who are competent to handle this department of instruction, the problem seems, at first, discouraging. It is profoundly discouraging to that class of narrow school-men and uncompromising educational reformers who would impose an inflexible "scientific plan" upon every community, and "hew to the line" in every sort of school. Scientific every method should be, in the broad sense that nothing should be taught which is not in accordance with the natural order of development in child-nature and adjusted to the actual condition of the community. And the problem will not be hopeless if the friends of the movement will have the wisdom to "search and try" the present system of schooling with a view to discover its merits rather than expose its defects, and will be content to work in the gradual way that nurses every vital spot, takes advantage of every local peculiarity, and never forgets that the basis of all special training is a good common school education, with the moral discipline that is always more than "half the battle." For mental incapacity and moral incom-

petency are now, as ever, the open pits into which a large part of human endeavor, in all varieties of work, falls in hopeless confusion, panic, and wreck.

When we attempt to seize upon the vital spots in the educational life of the South for the grafting of the industrial element, we naturally turn to those schools, already mentioned, which are in a condition to handle the methods and develop the spirit without which the industrial feature will only become a new burden to the scholar. How, then, can the graded public and the numerous academical schools be utilized for this end? Already we find the beginnings of industrial training in a growing number of the free graded schools for both races. The graded school is now well established in almost every city of the first class in the South, and is steadily taking possession of towns of 2,000 people and upwards, although large numbers of these have not yet come into this organization. Wherever a competent superintendent of the system has been found, these graded schools have availed themselves, at once, of the best modern methods of organization, instruction, and discipline, and differ in no essential respect from the better class of city schools in all parts of the country. Indeed, in some respects they are favored in the enthusiasm with which a community takes hold of a new enterprise; the vital interest of parents in the school life of their children; the power and responsibility given to the superintendent, both in administration and the training of his subordinate teachers; and the presence of a class of pupils drawn from the superior families of the surrounding country. Already industrial drawing has been introduced in a portion of these schools. The gymnastic training and semi-military drill, so popular in them all, is, in itself, a good preparation for hand-work. There is a strong current of public opinion in all these communities in favor of a further advance in this direction, and many excellent people who either oppose or remain incredulous concerning the public school movement would be reconciled by the introduction of this feature. This is especially the case in regard to the public schools for colored children, and it is fortunate that the industrial training which many thousand of their teachers have already received in the schools before mentioned has prepared them to meet this demand. In fact, this sort of instruction, in the country districts, is almost entirely confined to the schools for colored children, and there is a good deal of it in an irregular way in all parts of the country.

It is easily seen that here, in public graded schools of the better sort, the way is open for a favorable beginning of industrial training. It is advisable that the basis should be laid in the primary departments, in the intelligent use of those natural methods of instruction in all branches that are the best preparation for hand-work higher up. If the friends of the kindergarten would heartily join hands with the primary department of the new graded school, in order that it might be enriched by the adoption of such elements as can be made effective, a great deal could

be done by modelling, elementary drawing, paper-folding, the study of geometric forms, and all the beautiful devices by which a child learns to concentrate his activity on the creative instead of the destructive side of life, to lay the foundations of industrial education in the earliest years. At the fit age, sewing and such features of household economy as can be taught through the "Kitchen Garden" would be a relief to the monotony of study, and of great use to girls, while the boys could be preparing for other exercises. In the higher grammar school grades, classes could be formed for manual training, cooking, etc., in which such pupils as desire it can receive a few hours of instruction from a skilled teacher every week, with no interruption to a reasonable course of general study. The pupils electing such a course would naturally be stimulated and often do better work all round. The writer is not yet convinced that industrial training of this grade should be at first made compulsory, or that the visionary notion of turning out a school-boy, at fourteen, able to earn a living by a trade is other than a delusion. If industrial training is to be a success in the public school, it must come in as the natural outgrowth of a general scheme of instruction, and its more exacting features be left as an elective in the higher elementary and secondary departments. For, while children usually enter upon any new thing in school with spirit, the premature imposition of hand-work as a part of the daily routine would become as monotonous and distasteful as any study of the course. It has been observed, however, that where these varieties of hand-work have been placed in an elective department and skilled teachers employed, the pupils electing are by no means confined to what is called the "working classes;" in fact, the value of such exercises is often most keenly felt by families of the highest culture, social standing, and wealth. It is important that, in this movement in the South, we steer clear of that narrow idea which would make the common school, like the English public school, an arrangement for the "working classes," with neither the patronage nor cordial sympathy of the more favored portion of society in its support. The American common school can neither be made an "annex" to any ecclesiastical establishment, or a low grade, semi-industrial seminary for special classes of children, without a change in its ideal and methods which would forfeit the esteem and finally the pecuniary support of the American people.

Large numbers of Southern youth are still, and must long continue to be, educated in the academies, private and denominational, that are found in every locality. It will be many years before the free high-school system can be largely developed in these States, owing to scattered population and the small number of considerable towns in a condition to incur the additional expense. These academical schools for both sexes of white students are generally crowded with pupils, and to them we must look for hearty co-operation in the work of industrial education. And already a favorable opening appears in what is called the "art department," which is found in every Southern school

the higher training of colored youth can supply young men or women able to organize and supervise this most essential feature of every school for colored children in these States.

The pivotal point in the industrial as in every department of Southern education is the training of competent teachers. A limited number of city schools can afford to employ experts at superior wages to deal with this department, although in the most favored metropolitan centres of the North the tendency is constantly in the direction of placing everything to be taught to young children in charge of the regular room teacher of the graded school. But half the children north and nine-tenths the pupils south of the Ohio and Potomac Rivers are found in country district schools, where the one teacher is supreme, and it is idle to talk of introducing anything into the school life of the Southern States that can not be handled by the regular teachers. In this respect the South, in spite of many disadvantages, is in this peculiar situation: that *nowhere* can an able man or woman, in a country school-house, become such a power, not only among the children, but in the advancement of the whole community. We have already called attention to the great and beneficent influence of thousands of the colored graduates of their superior schools over the masses of their race as teachers and general missionaries in all good works. But this opportunity is common in all schools under the charge of one or two teachers. One of the most hopeful features in Southern school-keeping is the large number of young women, from the more intelligent and often the leading families, now engaged in teaching, not only in city but in country district schools. No one unacquainted with the peculiar constitution of Southern society can appreciate the influence exerted by the competent and devoted daughter of a well-known county family as a teacher in her home district or in the neighboring county town—an influence broader, more profound and far-reaching, than can proceed from social superiority alone. For, while social distinctions so often separate the community into rival classes and breed the most painful estrangements, the good girl in the public school-house brings all her superiorities of culture, position, and accomplishment to bear on the children of every order, condition, class, and race. The writer, in an eight years' observation of Southern school-keeping, has seen hundreds of ladies of the most distinguished Southern families thus engaged; in fact, school-keeping is as common an occupation for the superior young women of many of these States as in New England fifty years ago. The efforts of multitudes of these young women to obtain the education and professional training for their work are often the most pathetic and inspiring spectacle in the present development of society in these States.

Another favorable point in all the public school-keeping of the South, but especially in the country schools, is its intimate connection with the family and the church. Nowhere in our country is the old time idea of family life so powerful as there; and the church still holds a

vital relation to the people of both races. The inevitable tendency of all schooling in populous regions, where life goes fast and nobody does what is not just at hand, is the separation of the child from home influences during his most impressible years, while even the church strives in vain to hold its youthful membership outside the brief hour of the Sunday school. But amid the comparatively scattered populations and quiet life where the vast majority of Southern children are growing up, the home, church, and community touch more closely upon and blend more intimately with the school. While, doubtless, in the case of illiterate parents and neighborhoods, this is an additional burden to the teacher, yet her compensation is found in the fact that often, in a very real sense, the whole community becomes her school. The good teacher thus becomes the man or woman of all work in the upper story of social affairs, and finds a constant demand, outside the school-room, for every description of work, suggestion, direction, and uplifting influence. All this is favorable to the introduction of industrial instruction, whenever the teacher has the competence, character, working power, and tact to command the situation. And if the situation prevents the application of the cut-and-dried methods of the city technical schools, it does furnish the opportunity for the more natural and often more effective ways which take hold on the entire life of the child, making connection at vital points and swinging a whole community off into a great enthusiasm for a good new thing.

For this training of the mass of teachers we must look, of course, to the superior schools of the South. We have already shown that almost the entire body of secondary and collegiate institutions for colored youth are doing this with a fair amount of success. The Slater Fund, so wisely administered by its agent, Dr. Atticus Haygood, of Georgia, has greatly stimulated this movement in this class of seminaries. Almost every Southern State now supports a system of normal schools and institutes for the training of teachers of both races, and the Peabody Educational Fund expends its entire income for this purpose in a dozen of these States. At the earliest opportunity every State normal school for white teachers, and every State university that attempts pedagogical work, should be furnished with a vigorous department for training its graduates in the simpler forms of industrial instruction demanded in common schools. This instruction is indeed a vital part of elementary work in all schools now up with the times, and includes the elements of free-hand drawing, study of geometric forms, paper-folding, clay-moulding, and a great variety of exercises for the training of the eye and hand with the whole range of natural and object teaching. This develops into design, work in wood, instruction in house management and sewing, and can be indefinitely extended in the direction of any one of the two hundred ways which are now open to the skilled American woman for honorable pecuniary self-support. The graduate from these normal academical or collegiate schools who goes forth thus

armed and equipped becomes one of the most valuable professional persons in any community fortunate enough to secure this class of teaching service in its school-rooms. In the long summer institutes for teachers now held in all these States, it would be easy to furnish a course of practical instruction which, in connection with subsequent reading, would enable large numbers, even of country teachers, to begin the good work with a reasonable hope of success. The experience with this experiment at the Monteagle, Tenn., and De Funiak Springs, Fla., Chautauqua assemblies shows the great desire of numbers of teachers to avail themselves of this opportunity for industrial instruction.

The chief obstacle to this arrangement is doubtless the additional expense for schools already at their wits' ends to meet the demand for what they now attempt. Without more money, but little more can be expected of Southern education; for there is no large number of people doing so much good work for so little pay, and under such manifold discouragements, as the better class of teachers in all kinds of Southern schools. The great success attending the Peabody and Slater Funds suggests that nowhere would one of the million dollar gifts that are flying about the country be more truly a benefaction than placed in the hands of either of these boards of trustees, with a view to the training of teachers for the inauguration of the industrial movement in Southern education. The South itself has made a splendid beginning in the way of educational endowments, from its own limited class of wealthy people, and the attention of prosperous men of Southern birth should be at once directed to this movement for industrial instruction. An increasing number of wealthy men of Southern origin are now found in all the great cities and centres of financial importance in the North, and our Southern school-men should get on their track and urge the claims of the home-keeping people to their liberal contributions for such objects. One of the most beautiful features of society in the older Northern States is the habit of wealthy men and women, in the great cities, giving generous sums to their native towns, for libraries, schools, and benevolent institutions. In no way could the honorable State pride of the Southern millionaire, living in New York, Chicago, or the Northwest, be more honorably displayed than in establishing, in his native locality, one of those "institutes" which combine a library, reading-room, lecture-hall, and class-rooms for industrial instruction, both of the ordinary and artistic varieties.

Then let the industrial work, especially in country schools, be undertaken in the natural way, with less regard to rigid methods than to the actual opportunity for taking hold of the community both in and out of the school-room. A great deal can be done as a preparation by the encouragement of the industrial habit of self-help among the children. The golden rule of school discipline is, never aid a child in doing what, by a fair use of his own ability and time, he can do for him-

self. Apart from the great value of this precept in the proper work of instruction, it has a special application in that whole region of miscellaneous work belonging to the daily going on of the school. There is no reason why the teacher should be the head-servant of fifty children who, by skilful grouping and cheerful encouragement, could be made to do everything connected with the manual labor, arrangement, and ornamentation of the school-house and grounds. Now and then the writer in his journeyings has come upon a school-house which, through the industrial tact of a bright school-mistress, has been changed from an unsightly blot on the landscape to the most attractive spot in the region round about; all to the great advantage and delight of the pupils and to the pride and encouragement of the parents. There is no reason why, over wide districts of the country, the people, both colored and white, should not build school-houses as comfortable as the average dwelling, by combining to furnish material and work, leaving the scanty public funds to be used for the actual work of instruction. There is no agency more efficient for good in all progressive industrial ways than a wide-awake country school, where a thoroughly furnished and popular teacher marshals his little army, makes the school-house the centre of a new mental, social, and patriotic life, and himself the leader in many things that all friendly people desire to know. "Where there is a will there is a way;" and it is not half so difficult as it appears to bring a country district into the most enthusiastic condition of mind, where all who love God and man can be made to "work together for good." The society for village improvement, the agricultural club, and all the machinery for the promotion of industrial, social, and moral reform, can be made to centre upon this, the best associate of the churches in the blessed work of the practical regeneration of the daily lives of the people. Nobody can estimate the force of such an example in communities in the condition of the rural South; and if there is a nobler calling for the noblest woman and man than thus to become a missionary-of-all-work for all sorts and conditions of folk, we are unable to name it.

And the more all this industrial work is kept in close connection with the home life of the parents, the better will it be, in itself, and the more effective as a mental and moral discipline of the children. With all due consideration of the great incapacity of several millions of the American people, in all sections, for the proper industrial training of their children at home, we are convinced that any system of such instruction which leads these incompetent families to shirk their own plain duty and cast upon the schools this great burden, will be a disastrous mistake. Especially in the industrial department, where the home should be the centre of discipline in the spirit of labor and training in common things, there should be nothing in the school-house to give the impression that this defect is excusable. Thus, every step in this direction should be taken after full consultation with the more influential people and combined with some effort to wake up the shiftless, ignorant, and vicious class

to a desire for instruction and a co-operation with the school. The Southern people like nothing better than a good talk, and no better service could be done by the professional classes, the talking young men, or public-spirited women of a community, than familiar neighborhood lectures, covering the whole ground of education, with special application to the matter here discussed. It would not be impossible to secure the aid of the most skilful people in the various occupations to co-operate with the lessons in the school-room. The introduction of this feature in the district or village school might not only vitalize what is so often a realm of dulness and despair, but bring the whole community to a fit appreciation of the great work of education. One reason why the average American so often submits to the school tax as a sort of mysterious public necessity and is always open to the raid of every sort of opponent, crank, or grumbler on the educational system, is the fact that the school-house has often no vital connection with the life outside, but is a dismal realm into which the children vanish with reluctance and "come forth" with turbulent "joy and singing," instead of the beautiful crown of society. Of course, the end of school training is manhood and womanhood, of which getting a living is only one part, and that subservient to life. But since we "have the treasure in earthen vessels," we must compass the best ways of caring for material things. And only when the common work of life is glorified by intelligence, character, and elevation of soul and purpose, is its relation to time and eternity well understood. Hence, everything that shows to the parents the relation of their children's schooling to their honorable success in life is good, and binds together old and young in sweet and helpful accord.

A good deal of the zeal and physical vim now expended, in some quarters, in military and athletic exercises for boys might well be diverted to manual training that would be of inestimable benefit through life, to say nothing of the public demoralization represented in the great newspaper columns of "Sports and Pastimes." Especially should a Southern farmer be a "man-of-all-work," and his success will often depend on his ability to instruct his ignorant laborers. George Washington thought it no let-down of dignity to spend a whole day in initiating a farm hand in some new operation suggested by the last letter from the great English agriculturist, Arthur Young, and the graduates of Southern colleges, the majority of whom may be to some extent land holders, will find even a moderate outfit of farm lore or handicraft a blessed deliverance from the most intolerable slavery on earth—the bondage of a landed proprietor to the whims, obstinate ignorance, and destructive wastefulness of a crowd of unskilled laborers. It is not necessary that men of substance, disposed to give, should wait until they are able to establish a special institution. The few thousand, sometimes the few hundred, dollars that will pay a salary and establish a "plant" in a vigorous academical or collegiate school for either sex, may bear fruit in the waking up of a whole region of country to better

methods on the land, in the shop, and at the home. Whatever may be the issue of the Congressional deliberation on national aid for education, nobody could well object if the sporadic habit of giving away valuable public property and lands to special institutions which now prevails were changed to a general additional gift to the agricultural and mechanical colleges, which would enable them to enter in dead earnest upon the work of training teachers for the new departure of Industrial Education.

Nowhere in Southern life is there such imperative need of industrial training as in the department of household service. Bad enough in the North, its Southern aspect, outside the favored circles of wealth, is well-nigh unendurable. No large body of good women are now keeping house, anywhere in Christendom, under such provocations, hindrances, and exasperations, as our sisters of the South-land. And nowhere, in this or any country with a well-developed system of household service, could home life be made so easy, so charming, so wholesome, at such moderate expense. With such advantages of climate, semi-tropical fertility of soil, luxuriance of foliage and flowers, and cheapness of material, there should be no desperate poverty through that bounteous realm, and all, from the humblest to the most favored, should find a good home life the easy reward of toil. But, at present, this is everywhere hindered by the lack of intelligent, trained, and docile service, with such wear and tear of physical health and weariness of soul as only the faithful woman can understand. The experts tell us that half the food material of the whole country is wasted in the kitchen—enough to feed all the hungry people in the land. No one but the sanitary expert knows the diabolism of bad food and bad housing, not only in their results equal to the horrors of the drink-curse, but often the cause of the morbid bodily conditions that can only be appeased by the waters of Hell. Under the old dispensation the plantation was often a good school of house-keeping, according to the best ideals and habits of life which then prevailed.¹ To-day, the only school of the colored maid-of-all-work is her

¹An editorial in the Montgomery (Ala.) Advertiser on the servant question, published January 9, 1888, was commented upon as follows by the New York Evening Post:

"The domestic servant problem is becoming as serious in the South as in the North. For some years after the War many families escaped trouble because they retained as free laborers in the kitchen and the laundry those who had formerly been in the house as slaves and were attached to the interests of their employers. But this old generation is fast passing away, and the new one is of a very different sort. Indeed, not a few Southern people complain that they have more difficulty in getting along with colored women than Northern housewives have with white women. That the difficulty has become serious will be readily believed when it is known that many Southern people are talking of importing white servants for the household from the North, because they think they can get along better with such new-comers than they do with the negroes of the neighborhood. The Montgomery (Ala.) Advertiser says, 'a good deal of discussion is going on among the heads of families in Montgomery on the subject of white domestic servants, and the best method of procuring them is a live question.'"

own family, often the abode of disorder and very rarely a place where the daughters can be trained for good service in an average home. But the Southern people are entering upon a career of prosperity, and Southern taste and aspiration will be satisfied with nothing less than the best things in home life. There is no probability that household service will pass out of the exclusive dominion of the colored people, and no people are better adapted for the finest training in this respect than they. While the American mistress of the household is so often, herself, a novice in the difficult region of home-making, the prospect is not brilliant for the speedy relief of the Southern sisterhood. But while the foreign servant class of the North abhors the country and swarms in the towns, the South has abundant material everywhere for good service. It only needs a systematic effort to establish a department of skilled house-keeping in the schools, with outside training to overcome this difficulty. Many of the colleges of these people have now a model home, where their pupils are instructed by competent teachers, and they carry to their own family life better methods and ideas of living. This instruction would largely overcome the distaste for house-service, which is generally the result of ignorance, and unwillingness to face the difficulties of learning a new thing, too often in a house where mistress and maid need schooling in the elements of domestic work. Intelligence, skill, good wages, and the respect that always attends expert and faithful service, will lighten this dark cloud that now broods over the home life of the South. In no way can the young women of these States confer a greater blessing on their section than by a wide-spread and hearty effort to inaugurate a general scheme for the instruction of the class that, for a generation, probably for all time, will furnish the workers in this department of Southern life.

A very important consideration in the new industrial life of the South is the fit training of the operative class in the new manufacturing centres of these States. At present, the cotton mills seem to be largely supplied from the poorer class of the native white population, while the colored people are found in the tobacco, iron, and most of the mechanical industries, working, according to report, with fair success. As the manufacturing interest increases, the class of native white operatives will probably be insufficient, and the problem of training the colored people will be encountered. There is no doubt expressed by those who have most to do with the industrial schooling of these people that in them the South has a most valuable material for its growing operative class, and that, with proper effort, they can be fitted to do the work for which the North is compelled to depend on the constant importation of the more ignorant and undisciplined people from Europe. Along with this goes the rare opportunity offered to the corporations of making every manufacturing centre also an educational centre for the people brought in by the demand for operative labor. Nowhere is it easier for such a corporation to take into consideration the social, mental, and

moral needs of its employés, and build up around its establishmen at community that will become a model of its kind. At Graniteville, S. C., Anniston, Ala., and the populous suburbs of Columbus, Ga., the writer has seen this, the most effective missionary work, well done with the white operatives of the mills. It only remains to put a check on the growing evil of child-labor, with which the great manufacturing States of the North are now dealing, to rescue the children of elementary school age, under fourteen, from the burden of overwork and give them that boon of public training which the country owes to every American child. It is gratifying to note that the leading manufacturing localities of the South are generally the leading school centres, and that a large town of this sort, properly managed, is of equal value for its product of good citizenship and salable goods. Here and at the railroad repair and manufacturing points is found a capital opportunity of putting industrial instruction of the manual training sort into the new common schools. In this way each of these neighborhoods would become a school of skilled labor, and the expense incurred would be the most profitable investment for the manufacturer, no less than a great uplift to the people. There would seem to be no reason why a country as favored as the South should be compelled to add to its other difficulties the growth of great manufacturing cities, crowded with ignorant, vicious, and restless working folk; and the bitter experience of the European and some of our American States in this respect may well be used as a warning. Nothing pays in modern industry like intelligence, character, skill, temperance, and economy in the mass of workmen of every class, and this reform would bring the labor troubles to a peaceful and beneficent issue in every part of the country. Whatever may be thought of the methods of dealing with the drink-curse, all good men must rejoice at the remarkable growth of the temperance movement, especially in those parts of the South where free liquor means the destruction of free labor. The splendid crusade of Southern women in behalf of the moral purification of society deserves all the praise it receives, and adds a new laurel to the crown of Southern womanhood.

In fact, no portion of the Southern people is more directly interested in the question of the Industrial Education of the masses than the young women, of both races. One of the most affecting spectacles in Southern society is the manner in which the great majority of the elderly women of the South, who were the greatest sufferers by the War, have accepted the situation, adjusted themselves to circumstances, and, in numberless instances, developed an energy, ability, and tact in various lines of occupation that have not only brought material success, but revealed rare qualities of character and mind. To them the problem has been to face life with courage and dignity, take what was offered, and work at "what their hands found to do with all their might." But a far different and broader problem is offered to their daughters, indeed to the entire young womanhood of the South which has come forward in the

generation since 1860. We do not write for the small class that here, as in every section of our country, is using the opportunity of wealth and culture to turn away from labor and find the most laborious of all occupations in the pursuit of social excitement and the reckless imitation of the follies of the fashionable caste abroad. We speak of the young women of the South among whom we have been living for the past eight years, with unusual opportunities for observation of their outlook upon the future. The result of this observation is the conviction that the future of these young women, more than of any similar class in our country, is bound up with this great question of Industrial Education.

The Southern people themselves are hardly aware how rapidly the younger women of their States are coming forward in all modern ways of influence and occupation. The steady drain of superior and active young men from the rural districts to the cities and the growing North and Southwest is already leaving large districts of the country dependent on the women, left behind, for the whole upper-story work of Southern life. As in New England, so now in several of the older of these States, the community is looking, more and more, to its rising young womanhood, not only for the due ordering of the home, but also for the practical management of the school; the philanthropic, charitable, educational, and missionary work of the church; and the almost absolute direction of social affairs. To answer this demand there must be a great enlargement of opportunity for honorable self support. Within the past twenty-five years the women of New England have led the North in the development of a great number of industries and opened numerous paths of profitable occupation to the sex. It is said that there are now two hundred ways by which a woman can get a respectable living in this country, and the scandal of the sewing-girl department is chiefly one of the melancholy fruits of that miseducation which drives thousands of women away from intelligent domestic service to the horrors of "independence" in a city attic and the temptations of an over-crowded labor market. The Southern situation has its own peculiarities, from the presence of a race whose previous condition has been that of service on the land and in the household. The growing intelligence of multitudes of young colored women, who must still depend for honorable support and virtuous lives upon labor in the household and the lighter forms of agricultural, mechanical, and operative work, calls aloud for industrial training. It is not education, but miseducation, that disqualifies the daughters of the freedmen for the duties of life—the same wretched delusion that everywhere associates mental culture with laziness and indifference to the common duties of a woman's lot. It is foolish to rail at or go into despair over the present transition period in the training of the masses of colored girls. The wise and Christian thing to do is to grapple with the situation, and by a broad and vigorous system of industrial training prepare them to fill with honor, profit, and happiness, the life

that opens before them with promise so inviting to every true woman of their race. Nowhere in Christendom is there now such opportunity for a great missionary movement on the practical side of religion as is offered to the Christian people of the South in the marriage of the industrial with the mental, moral, and spiritual side of that education which is the great lever for the uplifting of every class in similar condition.

But there is left enough of this industrial outlook to meet the desire and supply the need of the thousands of young women of the white race whose future depends on their ability to earn an honest living, and whose happiness, in any estate, is bound up with that knowledge, skill, and executive energy which will enable them to meet the demands of southern society. A great deal of education in skilled house-keeping and the economies of domestic life; that general acquaintance with affairs which gives to the mother or the elder sister in the home such power in training children and managing the details of family life; instruction on all those lines of occupation which are now more and more thronged with women workers,—here is a call for the organization or the industrial movement which can not safely be ignored. While it is true that many of these occupations depend upon a wealthy community for a market, it is also true that there is a growing demand in the South for articles of use and ornament, enough to justify immediate attention to this source of supply. Many of the varieties of gardening and fruit culture are now attracting the attention of women. It is difficult to see why crowds of bright, capable, and industrious girls, in a city like New Orleans, should be living on the edge of discomfort, while their own city sends thousands of dollars away, every year, to Paris or New York for articles that could be as well furnished at home. The formation of industrial and art societies by the women of several of the larger cities is a move in the right direction. Every neighborhood would do well to fall in with this movement and establish a woman's industrial organization; first, for inquiry and information, and, at fit time, for the encouragement of efforts to introduce some new occupation for the sex. There is no danger that American men will be crowded out of any industrial position where masculine ability is proved to be a decided element of superiority. Neither will our daughters become less womanly, attractive, and adapted to the enlarging sphere of American womanhood by responding to the call of their country in the industrial realm of life.

The present need of increased funds for the establishment of industrial training, as outlined in this essay, is a subject of grave consideration for that large class of people in the Northern States who, for the past twenty-five years, have contributed so generously to the schooling of the coming generation in the South. With all due allowance for inevitable misappropriation and misuse of money in a field so wide and imperfectly known, this gift, of probably more than twenty-

five millions of dollars, has been a benefaction and is thoroughly appreciated by all who are competent to judge. But the time has come when the importunities of the cloud of solicitors for such contributions must no longer blind the eyes of sensible people to the real necessities of the case. The three points where northern educational gifts can do the most good in the South are: 1st, the endowment of such colleges and academies as have proved themselves indispensable in the secondary and higher education; 2d, the aid of the Normal and Institute system, that is now struggling with the stupendous task of training teachers; and 3d, the judicious beginning of the industrial department in the ways indicated in this monograph. Our wealthy and charitable men and women are sometimes quite too careless and credulous in dispensing their bounty for education. Within the past few years several millions of dollars have been given, to establish new colleges or further schemes of doubtful expediency, in communities now overburdened with educational facilities,—money enough, with wise administration, to inaugurate a working scheme of industrial training through half a dozen States of the South. Our country needs one more school,—a school for the instruction of rich people in the science of Christian giving. Our new industrial associations in the North can do nothing better than inform themselves of the best opportunities for furthering this great enterprise in southern localities. A generous plant for a thorough school of manual training in connection with the public school system of cities like Birmingham, Selma, Atlanta, Decatur, Anniston, Chattanooga, Knoxville, Columbus, Rome, and Augusta, with others of less prominence, would be such a contribution to the public welfare as any wealthy man would be proud to remember, and link his name with a rising town destined hereafter to become one of the great cities of the southern country.

We dismiss, as unworthy of consideration, the notion that such giving or receiving will, in any way, compromise a just self-respect or work a demoralization of self-help. *No American community was ever yet demoralized by judicious private, State, or national aid for Education.* From the first day of our national existence to the present hour, Uncle Sam has been occupied in transferring the people's school money from one huge pocket to another, and every section that has received has been stimulated to greater home effort and, in turn, found itself in the attitude of passing on the gift to those beyond. The southern educational pocket is now the place where the whole people of the United States, in ways most judicious, are called, by every consideration of justice and Christian patriotism, to deposit their surplus, for the schooling of the six millions of southern children and youth. It will be a dark day for the Republic when cities, States, and sections draw off, either with a sense of satisfaction at their own fortunate condition, or a false pride in receiving. Certainly, the teaching fraternity of the country *has no such view* of the educational situation; for no five hundred

thousand people in the Union are now working together in greater harmony and with a more intelligent appreciation of each other than they. To them must we still look in the building up of the Industrial Education, so important to the material and social welfare of these sixteen States.

In conclusion, the writer of this essay, in justice to himself and his subject, would repeat his opening statement,—that his intention is not to discuss methods or to trench on the proper sphere of the expert in the general consideration of Industrial Education. He has not raised the disputed question, whether industrial training has any place in public schools beyond its use as a new device for the general development of mental power, or should have any conscious purpose of a proper industrial sort. The main object in view has been to set before his readers in the South a few broad reasons for the establishment of this department in the various grades of schools. He has availed himself of his own personal observation to suggest practical ways in which this work may be let in to the present educational movement. He has spoken frankly and strongly of what appear to him most imperious needs, and urged the consideration of the work nearest at hand. The all-pervading need of the South is the thorough instruction of several millions of its laboring class, of both races, in the elements of knowledge, discipline of mind, and that skill of the hand and industrial capacity that always and everywhere are the outcome of a well-administered American common school. The author of these pages will be well repaid for his effort if others more competent, especially among the younger rising schoolmen of the South, are moved to an accurate and zealous study of the special departments of a field so vast and inviting. To them and the educational public, always so ready to respond to the spirit of his former essays on Southern education, this monograph is commended.

APPENDIXES.

I.

STATEMENTS RESPECTING LEADING SOUTHERN EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS WHICH HAVE INTRODUCED INDUSTRIAL TRAINING.

The following statements have been prepared in the main from replies to a circular letter addressed by the Bureau of Education to the principals and presidents of various representative Southern institutions which make a prominent feature of industrial training, and which have tested the various departments thereof. Each presiding officer addressed was requested to give a brief description of the course of industrial training adopted at the institution under his charge, and to state the most important conclusions at which he had arrived as the result of his personal experience in the special class of industrial training in which he was engaged. The design of the Bureau has been to give direction to this important movement by the publication of these statements in connection with the essay of Dr. Mayo.

AGRICULTURAL AND MECHANICAL COLLEGE OF MISSISSIPPI.

Agricultural College, Miss.

[Compiled from statement of President S. D. Lee, Report of Board of Trustees, and Catalogue.]

This institution received one half of the United States agricultural college land-grant fund, the other half going to Alcorn University, for colored youth.

The studies and teachings of the college have been kept in harmony with the objects for which it was established; the institution has not been permitted to drift into a virtually literary school, but the agricultural feature has been maintained as of paramount importance. The board of trustees recognized the fact that the main and essential business of the people of Mississippi was, and will continue for years to come, to be, agriculture, and determined to make the funds of the college subservient to the interests of that industry. Under their management the college has become "a great success—as successful, if not more so, than any similar institution in the Union." In 1887 as many students were turned away, for want of room to lodge them, as there were received.

Although the college is open to all, yet the son of no rich man attends. The pupils are either wholly destitute of means, or are the sons of farmers of very limited resources. It is emphatically a school for the poor, and it is the intention of the trustees to make it subserve their interests. Distinctions in dress are prohibited, each pupil being clad in a cheap uniform, and no other dress, except a working suit, is allowed to be worn within five miles of the college.

The college is not, in the strictest sense, either literary, classical, or military, but rather designed to "give the industrial classes a general education, combined with

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ment of the wood shop consists of the following: 20 double wood-working benches, each with complete set of carpenters' tools; 25 turning lathes, 10-inch swing, each with complete set of tools; 1 double circular saw; 1 hand saw; 1 board planing machine; 1 buzz planer; 2 scroll saws (power); 1 large pattern-maker's lathe, 16-inch swing; 1 36-inch grindstone. In addition to these the tool room is supplied with a variety of extra hand tools for special work.

During the summer of 1886 a substantial brick building, 72 by 32 feet, one story high, with monitor roof, was built for the forge and foundry departments. This is divided into two rooms, each 35 by 30 feet, each department occupying one room.

The equipment for the foundry consists of moulding benches for 12 students, each supplied with a complete set of moulder's tools; a 14-inch cupola with all modern improvements, capable of melting 1,000 pounds of iron per hour; a brass furnace in which can be melted 100 pounds of brass at a heat, with a set of crucibles, tongs, etc. Also a full supply of ladles, large and small moulding flasks, special tools, etc.

The forge shop equipment consists of 12 hand forges of new pattern, each with set of smith's tools, anvil, etc. The blast for all the forges is supplied by a No. 3 Sturtevant steel pressure blower (which also furnishes blast for the foundry cupola), and a No. 15 Sturtevant exhaust blower draws the smoke from the fires into the smoke flues and forces it out through the chimney. Power for running these blowers is obtained by shafting connection with the main shop.

The machinery and equipment for the machine shop were purchased and erected in 1887. The machine tools in this department are as follows: 6 engine lathes (screw cutting), 14-inch swing, 6-foot bed; 2 engine lathes, 16-inch swing, 1 with taper attachment; 1 speed lathe, 10-inch swing, 4-foot bed; 1 20-inch drill press with power feed; 1 15-inch shaper; 1 22 by 22 inch by 5 foot friction planer; 1 universal milling machine; 1 corundum tool-grinding machine, 14-inch wheel, and 1 bench grinding machine (small).

A part of this shop is set apart for vice work—chipping and filing, and vice-benches for 12 students are provided, each bench with vice and set of files, chisels, hammers, etc. In the tool room is to be found a good supply of machinists' tools for general use, such as lathe and drill chucks, drills, reamers, taps, dies, gauges, files, cutting tools, and special appliances for machine work, etc.

The full course in mechanic arts covers three years, as follows: First year, wood-working—carpentry and turning; second year, forge and foundry work—moulding, casting, and smith work; third year, chipping and filing, and machine work in metals. Shop work is obligatory upon the students of the three lower classes.

The nature of the work in each department is as follows:

First year.—I. A course in carpentry (hand work), covering the first term and part of the second, or about five months. The lessons include instruction on the nature and use of tools, instruction and practice in shop drawing, elementary work with plane, chisel, saw, etc., different kinds of joints, timber splices, cross joints, mortise and tenon, mitre and frame work, dovetail work comprising different kinds of joints used in cabinet making, light cabinet work, examples in building, framing, roof-trusses, etc.

II. A course in turning, extending through part of the second and the whole of the third term. The lessons comprise, first, nature and use of lathe and tools, plain straight turning, caliper work to different diameters and lengths, simple and compound curves, screw plates, and chuck work, hollow and spherical turning.

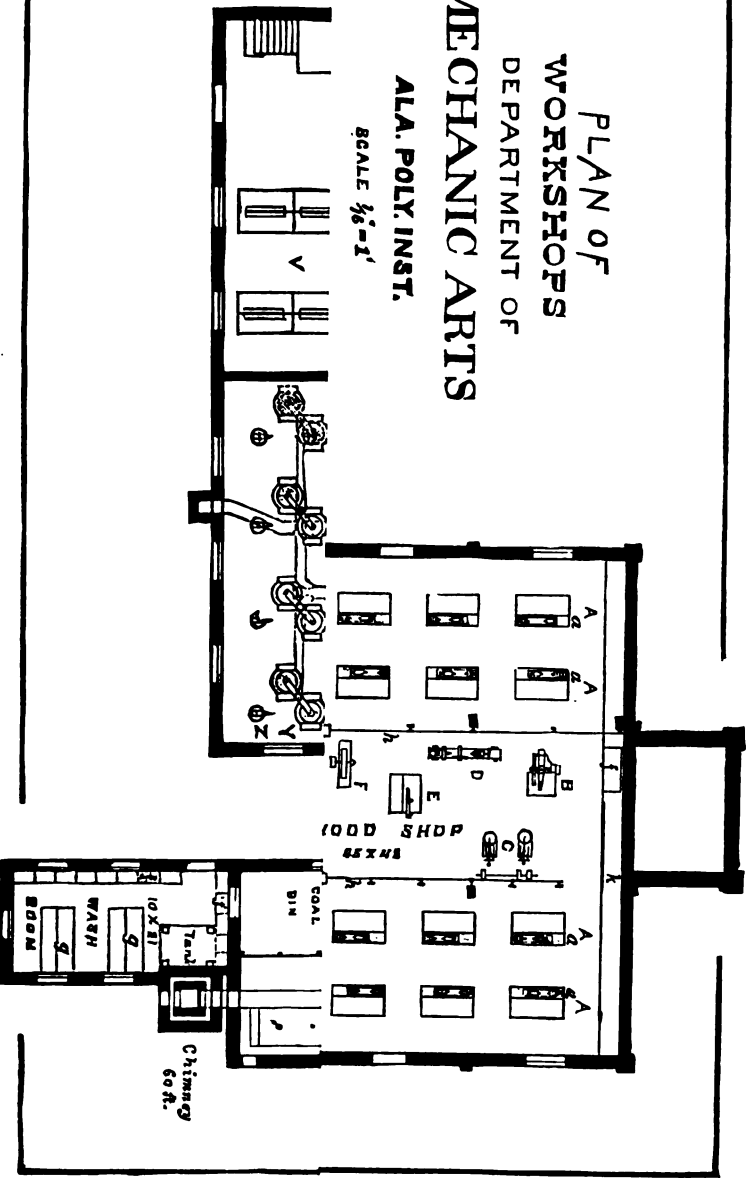
Second year.—I. A course in pattern making, occupying the first six weeks of the first term. The work comprises a variety of examples of whole and split patterns, core work, etc., giving the student practice in forming irregular shapes in wood with the lathe and carving tools, as well as familiarity with the nature and use of patterns for moulding.

II. A course in moulding and casting in iron and brass. The work consists for the most part of small articles, such as light machine parts, but a sufficient variety of

PLAN OF WORKSHOPS DEPARTMENT OF MECHANIC ARTS

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forms are introduced for the student to acquire a good general and practical knowledge of the usual methods and appliances used in light foundry work. Most of the work is in green sand, in two-part flasks; core work is also given, and some three-part flask and some dry sand work is introduced. The patterns made by the students during the first term are used, besides special patterns, for occasional larger or more complicated work. Instruction and practice are given in working the cupola, each student in turn taking charge of a melting.

III. A course in forge work in iron and steel. The lessons are arranged so that the students, in making the series of objects, become familiar with the nature of the metals under various conditions, and with the successive steps in working them by hand into simple and complex forms, as drawing, upsetting, bending, cutting, punching, welding by various methods, tool-forging, tempering, hardening, etc.

In connection with this second year work, a series of lectures is given on the metallurgy and working of the metals used in the industrial arts, cast and wrought iron, steel, brass, etc.

Third year.—I. A course in chipping and filing, covering the first term. The lessons include work on cast and wrought iron, chipping to line on flat and curved surfaces, key seating, etc.; filing and finishing to line, straight and curved surface filing and finishing, fitting, slotting, dove-tail work, sliding and tight fits, sawing; pin, screw, and key filing, surface-finishing with scraper, etc.

II. Machine work occupies the remainder of the school year. The work includes cast iron, wrought iron, steel, and brass; plain cylindrical turning, turning to various diameters and lengths, paper turning, facing with chuck and face plate; drilling both in drill press and lathe; reaming, boring, screw-cutting with lathe and with taps and dies; planing, slotting, etc., with planer and shaper; milling various forms with milling machine; fitting, etc. Lectures are also given during the year on various subjects connected with machine work in metals, such as forms, construction and use of machines and cutting tools, gearing, gauges, screw threads, etc. During the last term some piece of construction work is given to the classes.

All instruction is given, first, by black-board drawings or sketches, which the student copies, with dimensions required, in a note book, with which each one provides himself; thus each one works from his own notes; this is supplemented, whenever necessary, by the actual construction of the lesson by the instructor before the class: second, by inspection and direction at the bench or machine by the instructor.

Students desiring to pursue the study of applied mechanics beyond the above course in shopwork will be required to take, in addition, a special course, embracing the study of steam and mill engineering, supplemented by experiment and practice with the apparatus, including steam generation, and the forms, construction, and use of steam-boilers and accompanying apparatus; steam as a motive power, and forms, construction, and use of the steam-engine, with the study and use of the indicator; transmission of power, shafting, belting, gearing, etc.; also elementary theoretical mechanism.

CLAFLIN COLLEGE OF AGRICULTURE AND MECHANICS' INSTITUTE.

Orangeburg, S. C.

This institution shares equally with the University of South Carolina the revenue from the United States agricultural college land grant. Its advantages and privileges are offered to all of either sex without regard to color.

The industries pursued were established through the aid of the John F. Slater Fund.

The president of the institution, Rev. L. M. Dunton, D. D., reports as follows:

"This institution is fully committed to industrial education.

"The following departments have been established, and are being prosecuted as far as the funds at our command will admit:

"School of agriculture, school of carpentry, school of printing, school of mechanical drawing, school of tailoring, school of shoemaking, school of house painting, school of blacksmithing, school of domestic economy, industrial store, military tactics, and general economy.

"As there is not a local market for anything that we could manufacture, and as the funds at our command are limited, and as it is absolutely necessary to make our industries self-supporting, we have undertaken to supply, as far as possible, the daily demands of our own institution. We are astonished to learn that in order to do this our departments are likely to be taxed to their utmost capacity.

"The farm supplies the institution with corn, potatoes, vegetables, milk, and meat.

"The school of carpentry repairs and builds everything, from a wheelbarrow to a cottage.

"The printing office does job work and issues a neat little paper called the *Claffin Miscellany*.

"The tailoring department repairs and manufactures clothing.

"The shoe department repairs shoes.

"The school of house painting gives lessons in painting, graining, etc.

"The blacksmith department repairs everything in its line, also repairs locks, tin ware, stoves, etc.

"The school of domestic economy teaches house-keeping, cooking, sewing, and fancy work.

"The industrial store furnishes books, stationery, and, as far as possible, everything that a student needs.

"The department of military tactics is intended to cultivate attention, prompt obedience and an erect and graceful carriage of the body.

"Economy in everything is encouraged as the surest way to success.

"Full work is required of all students in the class-room. It has been demonstrated to our satisfaction, not only that two hours of labor in the afternoon do not detract from the work required in the class-room, but also that the students engaged in manual labor enjoy better health, and average a greater per cent. in the class-room, than those who are not so engaged."

CLARK UNIVERSITY—INDUSTRIAL DEPARTMENT.

Atlanta, Ga.

Students are admitted to all the privileges of Clark University without regard to color, sect, or sex.

COURSE OF INSTRUCTION.

The course in the industrial department extends over three years, during which the elements of a common school education are given in conjunction with industrial training, as follows:

First year.—Arithmetic to decimal fractions, reading, spelling, and writing. Industrial instruction two hours. Practical work two hours each day.

Second year.—Arithmetic to evolution, reading, spelling, and writing. Geography to South America. Industrial instruction as first year.

Third year.—Business arithmetic twice each week. Geography completed, elementary grammar, reading, spelling, and writing, industrial and architectural drawing. Work one hour each day.

N. B.—All students in English studies requiring aid must take this course.

INDUSTRIES TAUGHT.

CARPENTRY.

A two-story shop contains an engine, one circular saw, two scroll saws, three lathes, and draughting tables.

The young men learn the use of tools, and how to draw plans and to make specifications for buildings.

A large number of houses have been built by the students, and practical work in this line is given every year.

AGRICULTURE.

Four hundred acres of land give plenty of room for this department.

PRINTING.

A good press and a full newspaper and job-printing outfit give students an opportunity to become first-class printers. A bi-weekly paper, *The Elevator*, gives practical experience that is very valuable. Besides the paper, the students do all the college printing, as well as outside job work.

DOMESTIC ECONOMY.

Under the management of the Woman's Home Missionary Society of the Methodist Episcopal Church.

A beautiful cottage furnishes a "model home," where a class of twelve remain one year and learn the art of house-keeping. All the girls are taught various kinds of sewing, and an advanced class studies the most approved systems of dress-making and millinery.

WAGON AND CARRIAGE BUILDING.

Wood work.—The carriage shop is in charge of a competent mechanic, who gives instruction in every branch of this trade. Carriages and wagons are built here, furnishing all the practice needed.

Iron work.—A neat shop is supplied with forges, anvils, and all the necessary tools. During the past year a large class has been taught all kinds of wagon iron work. The citizens of Atlanta afford generous patronage, thus giving the students valuable practice.

Trimming.—All branches of this profitable trade are taught by an excellent workman.

Painting.—The painting and varnishing of every description of carriages is done in the best style, and a limited number of students can take lessons.

HARNESS MAKING.

This department has been crowded with orders this year, and a large class has taken instruction and made rapid advancement.

Expenses.—The university, through its industrial department, furnishes unusual opportunities to work out a large part of the expenses.

Number of students.—The number of students in the various industries is as follows: Carpentry, 8; printing, 20; wheelwrights, 11; iron work, 9; harness making, 6; carriage painting, 3; trimming, 3; total, 60. Whole number of students in university, 322.

New shops, to cost \$5,000, are being built, as well as a Girls' Industrial Home, to cost \$4,500.

President E. O. Thayer writes as follows:

"We endeavor to teach trades, and not to give mere technical instruction.

"Work is not compulsory, but we have no difficulty in securing workers in every department.

"Our best students are, as a rule, our best mechanics.

"We find that those who become most proficient and deeply interested in their trades soon desire to drop their studies and devote themselves to work.

"One of the chief lessons taught by having industrial training in connection with literary work is the dignity of labor and the possible harmony between the two courses.

"I am convinced that merely technical instruction is not adapted to the 'environment' of the colored youth.

"One great value of the industrial work is that we can aid poor students without taking away their feeling of independence."

HAMPTON NORMAL AND AGRICULTURAL INSTITUTE.

Hampton, Va.

[Statement of S. C. Armstrong, Principal.]

Our manual labor departments number twenty, as follows:

Home and Hemenway farms.

Huntington Industrial Works, including saw-mill and wood-working shops.

Girls' industrial room.

Printing office and bindery.

Wheelwright and blacksmith shops.

Green-house.

Girls' garden.

Knitting room.

Engineers' department.

Household work, including laundry, cooking class, and diet kitchen.

Indian training shops, including wood-working room, wood-carving, carpenter shop, harness shop, shoe shop, tin shop, and paint shop.

These represent the chief industries of the school. There are, however, about 30 boys, with a daily duty of from two to three hours before and after school, employed in the care of the buildings occupied by officers and of Academic Hall. Every one of our 600 students has his or her routine work by the hour or the month, as they are day or night students; and so far from finding that this interferes with their studies, it is unanimously acknowledged by our teachers to be a distinct assistance and stimulus.

Last year I reported the establishment through the Slater Fund of a technical department. Here each member of the Senior class, both young men and women, takes a course of instruction in the use of carpenters' tools. The girls show talent and growing interest, and respond to this training quite as much as the boys. We propose to give, in addition, instruction in the use of blacksmiths' and wheelwrights' tools, and in bricklaying, plastering, and painting. All this is supplementary to the regular shops, where the students serve an apprenticeship of three years, working by day and studying at night, earning at first their board only, and later \$10 or more a month, in addition.

Technical teaching here, as elsewhere, is solely for instruction. While we seek as far as possible to produce useful articles and thus reduce expenses, we give no immediate pecuniary help to the pupils, and the cost to the school in teachers' salaries, tools, etc., is large. We are obliged, therefore, to provide productive industries of some sort for a majority of our students, who have to work their way, paying in labor their board of \$10 a month and the cost of books, clothing, and incidentals. Most of them work all day on the farm, in the household, or at general industries, for the first year, studying every evening, except Saturday, in the night school. At the end of this year they usually begin the normal course, studying four days in the week and working two. Some idea of the market value of this labor may be gathered from the fact that during the past year the total earnings of our students were \$50,339.25.

As regards the conclusions to which our experience has led us, I would say, first, that we find a distinct difference between the results of technical training, pure and simple, and those of the apprenticeship system. The former is simply class work in the shop, exceedingly valuable, but limited in its influence; while through the latter we find that our students get a discipline, a habit of steady industry, a skill and self-reliance, which are literally inestimable.

We have, I think, been able to combine here the benefits of technical teaching and of the apprenticeship system to great advantage, a large majority of our students acquiring some kind of training in direct self-support, while getting, besides, at least a general knowledge of the special uses of a variety of tools.

We find, secondly, as I have said before, that neither technical nor productive manual labor, as we here regulate it, interferes in the least with the intellectual growth of the students. On the contrary, we cannot too strongly reiterate our conviction that, in the best sense, it stimulates it. The workshops "tone up" the class-rooms in a way which even yet surprises us.

Thirdly, the disciplinary effect of regulated labor is admirable. In this respect we have come to have the fullest confidence in our system. Not only does the fact that our students are constantly and healthfully occupied mean that they are kept out of mischief, but it means also a general, steady building up of character, which tells on the *morale* of the whole institution, and from which we get results attainable in no other way.

In short, the experiments carried on here during the past twenty years justify us, we believe, in committing ourselves to the declaration that nothing like complete development, or even sound growth, is possible for the races with whom we are dealing except as their education shall be largely and fundamentally industrial. There is no salvation for them except as the "work idea" shall be incorporated into their lives; and that they themselves are, at least in part, conscious of this, is shown for us by the steady increase of applications for admission, our "work students" numbering now 180 as against 20 a few years since.

Yours, respectfully,

S. C. ARMSTRONG,
Principal.

HOWARD UNIVERSITY.

Washington, D. C.

[Statement of Rev. William W. Patton, D. D., LL. D., President.]

WASHINGTON, D. C., *January 17, 1888.*

DEAR SIR: In response to your letter of inquiry of the 5th instant, I would state that we have now commenced our fifth year of experience in what is called "Industrial Education." Beginning with scarcely any equipment for so important an undertaking, we have made a perceptible progress from year to year, through the bene-

factions of a few specially interested (principally of the denomination of "Friends") and the aid of Congress. By the assistance of the latter the building in use has recently been reconstructed, and is now well adapted to its purpose, having rooms for instruction in carpentry, sheet-iron and tin work, printing, tailoring, and shoe-making, in all of which branches of industry we impart a degree of training. In addition, the girls have received instruction in cutting, fitting, and sewing, and to some extent in cooking and laundry work, while a few have learned type-setting and type-writing.

Our plan of procedure is, to require three years of practice in the industrial department of every student in the normal and preparatory departments, and to encourage those in the higher departments to avail themselves of the opportunity to acquire this kind of knowledge and skill, which many of them do. The hours per week compulsorily required of each are but four, though some become so much interested as voluntarily to spend much more time in this way. Each student selects the line of industrial work which he prefers. Of course we do not aim or profess to teach trades as such. We have not the arrangements for that purpose, nor have the students the requisite time. We are a literary institution, and industrial training is but an incidental appendage, so managed as to add the advantages of learning a use of tools without interfering with the main object of the university. We enable the young men to be self-helpful, without setting them up as qualified mechanics. The small time per week allowed for imparting these mere rudiments of mechanical trades does not allow of results which would make the industrial department self-sustaining, although small returns for work are occasionally obtained.

Though much embarrassed by the lack of means for obtaining the teachers, the tools, and the materials needed for thorough work, the results secured have been on the whole decidedly encouraging, and may be thus described :

1. A tendency to form habits of industry and thrift, especially in the use of leisure time, through the opening up of new employments and opportunities of earning money.
2. A higher conception of the dignity of manual labor, especially in its skilled forms, which are found to involve mental as well as manual ability ; while the way into mechanical pursuits is made more inviting by their association with study.
3. An intellectual benefit in the exercise of attention, patience, care, ingenuity, and judgment, called for by mechanical processes.
4. A pecuniary advantage, in that quite a number have been enabled, after a little practice, to make for themselves needed articles of clothing and furniture, and also, in vacation, to earn money in various trades, the elements of which had been mastered.
5. A preparation for usefulness in their future spheres of action, as they go into the rural districts of the South, carrying with them this practical mechanical knowledge, and being ready for the material emergencies which are sure to occur even with preachers, teachers, and heads of families, as well as with those engaged in manual occupations.

A practical question for such an institution as Howard University is whether it might not be a better plan to teach fewer industrial branches, and to require all male students in the normal and preparatory departments to take the three years' course in carpentry, as one likely to be of value to all in the future, reserving one or two other branches for special cases.

With this brief statement of our experience, I remain,

Yours, truly,

WM. W. PATTON,
President of Howard University.

Hon. N. H. R. DAWSON,
Commissioner of Education.

INDUSTRIAL INSTITUTE AND COLLEGE FOR THE EDUCATION OF WHITE GIRLS OF MISSISSIPPI.

Columbus, Miss.

(Statement of President R. W. Jones.)

COLUMBUS, MISS., January 23, 1888.

DEAR SIR: In compliance with your request I send you a brief statement of our "course of industrial training, with its relation to the general curriculum of your [our] institution." By way of introduction I will state that this institution presents an unusually broad intention. Its purposes are: (1) *thorough collegiate education*; (2) *normal training*; (3) *industrial training*; (4) *music and oil painting*. It will be unnecessary for me to describe the work of the department of music and oil painting further than to say that a fair proportion of the music students propose to follow the profession of teaching.

The conditions of admission require a knowledge of spelling, reading, writing, mental arithmetic, practical arithmetic, English grammar, and an elementary acquaintance with the history of the United States. These are very "light" requirements, yet a very large majority of our pupils are not equal to them. This lack of preparation has necessitated the organization of a two years' preparatory course, in which are taught arithmetic, elementary algebra, higher English grammar and analysis. Thereafter comes the collegiate course.

Our industrial training includes:

- (1) Drawing, beginning with the simplest free-hand drawing and proceeding to elaborate work in design and crayon portraiture and other applications.
- (2) Phonography and type-writing.
- (3) Book-keeping.
- (4) Telegraphy.
- (5) Cutting and fitting dresses, etc., by the tailor method.
- (6) Printing
- (7) Art needle-work.
- (8) Practical instruction and exercise in cooking, laundrying, and general housework.

Our industrial work has a two-fold aim: (1) educational, and (2) practical, or trade learning.

Along with the preparatory studies mentioned above, as well as with the normal studies, each pupil is required to take a thorough course in drawing, going up into modelling, etc. These students have at least one recitation per day of an hour's duration in this art. We find the time given to it is *not* "time lost;" on the contrary, the influence on the student's mental habits and progress is highly beneficial. Drawing and its applications develop the habit of close and accurate observation, the measurement of short distances and of proportion by the eye, delicate perception of form, and the interpretation of shades and shadows. This exercise is of the general nature and effect of object-teaching; it brings the mind to the recognition of realities. An hour devoted to it is a relief and refreshment of the mind that has been poring over mathematics and language. Thereafter intellectual work is more cheerful, hopeful, and successful.

The various kinds of housework are performed by details of students made from time to time, so that each student is practised in all kinds of domestic work, except the heavier duties of the kitchen and laundry. This we find has an excellent educational value.

Another large class of students come to this college to learn a special art or industry by which to be self-helpful, or to earn a livelihood. Generally this class of students do not take up a regular course of mental training. Some few of these have previously had a general school or college training; but for the most part they find,

after they have entered upon a course of special training for an art, that they need additional instruction in English, or mathematics, or both, and they add these subjects to their pursuits. For instance, a young lady desires to become a book-keeper; as she advances to the study of the various kinds of calculations to be made, she feels the need of a better knowledge of arithmetic and a wider and closer knowledge of the meaning of words. A young lady who enters upon a course of phonography finds at once that a full English vocabulary is indispensable to excellence in the work of a reporter or amanuensis; lacking this, she enters the classes in English.

Thus every industrial art emphasizes to the student the importance of general intelligence, the importance of the trained mind, the value of thought-power. Those who desire to employ any of these arts for a livelihood learn here at an early period of their course that they must encounter the close competitions of society, come into dealing with people, and must therefore have knowledge of "men and things," and genuine skill and dexterity. At first there was much of impatience "to get to work" and make some money; but this hasty and restless disposition is yielding to instruction, and the number is increasing of those who take a liberal course of general education in order to be properly qualified for a specialty. General training helps the special study, and the industrial art constantly suggests the need of the power and application which education gives.

PRACTICAL RESULTS.

Many students have been well prepared in telegraphy, book-keeping, phonography and type-writing, dress-making, and printing, and have secured employment in their respective lines with fair wages.

Though the college is now in its third year only, many students have acquired considerable expertness in designing, engraving, carving, and crayon portrait work.

Their designs have been subjected to the criticism of prominent manufacturers in New York, Brooklyn, and Philadelphia, and pronounced good and salable. Some of the students working here as students have received orders for portrait work at good pay.

The success of the institution has been marked.

Very respectfully, your obedient servant,

R. W. JONES.

Hon. N. H. R. DAWSON,

Commissioner of Education, Washington, D. C.

MARYLAND INSTITUTE SCHOOLS OF ART AND DESIGN.

Baltimore, Md.

The object of these schools is to furnish the best and most thorough instruction in the various branches of artistic and industrial drawing, painting, and modelling in clay, to all persons desiring to study art with a view of following the same professionally, as teachers, designers, decorators, or skilled artisans generally; also to give a liberal art education to those who wish to study art as an accomplishment, and for the enjoyment of its refining and elevating influences.

The principal, Otto Fuchs, late principal of the Massachusetts Normal Art School, writes as follows: "Instruction in the day school is almost exclusively artistic, including free-hand drawing, shading in charcoal, painting in water colors and oil, and modelling in clay. All studies are from objects, i. e., still-life, flowers, fruit, and from ornamental casts: head and figure drawing from the antique and from life; landscapes alone are drawn and painted from copies, but these are studies prepared especially for that purpose by accomplished artists. Our aim in the day school is to give

such thorough instruction in the several branches enumerated as will qualify the students to teach drawing, painting, and modelling in schools and seminaries, also to fit those who have the talent to become artists to enter higher art schools in this country or Europe.

"The work in the evening schools is altogether industrial,—free-hand object drawing in outline, light and shade in charcoal, mechanical and architectural drawing. These classes are attended exclusively by young men, mostly apprentices and artisans engaged in the various industrial pursuits where a knowledge of drawing is essential. The courses of instruction in the three divisions are systematic and thorough, copying from the flat being entirely discarded. Building construction and machine drawing are taught by aid of models made especially for that purpose. In the mechanical class the pupils first make free-hand sketches from the models, then measure all dimensions, and finally construct accurate scale drawings from their own sketches. In the architectural class they are furnished a small perspective view of a cottage, and must prepare a complete set of working drawings, plans, elevations, and sections of the house, drawn in a neat and draftsmanlike manner accurately to scale, carrying out the design indicated in the sketch. No one can graduate until he has completed in a satisfactory manner an entire set of drawings of a steam-engine or a building. In the free-hand division a still-life group, a piece of ornament from the cast, and a head from the antique, all shaded in charcoal or crayon, are required.

"The importance and practical value of this instruction to apprentices is shown by the interest which many of our leading manufacturers and builders manifest by requiring their young men to attend the institute schools, some of them paying the tuitions for the boys, allowing them to leave their work early on school nights, and requesting from time to time reports upon their attendance and progress. The proficiency acquired in the three years' course by those who possess the requisite talent is also well established by the readiness with which they find employment as draftsmen in engineers' offices, with architects and builders, and occasionally at ornamental work.

"There can be no doubt that in all manufacturing centres such schools, if properly conducted, would contribute largely to the development and prosperity of all industries which require superior skill, taste, and intelligence in their prosecution, and it is to be regretted that in many of our growing and enterprising cities the importance of such schools is not recognized sufficiently to establish them, and in others, where they exist, the support is inadequate to afford the necessary facilities. One reason for this is that foreign skilled artisans supply the demand, and therefore our own youth receive little encouragement."

McDONOGH SCHOOL.

McDonogh, Baltimore County, Md.

The founder of the McDonogh School was John McDonogh, a native of Baltimore, but during the greater part of his life a resident of New Orleans, where he accumulated considerable property. At a comparatively early period of his life he determined to devote all his estate to charities. Twelve years before his death he made his will, devising the bulk of his property, amounting to \$1,500,000, in equal parts to the cities of New Orleans and Baltimore, for the promotion of the object he had in view. The portion of the estate given to Baltimore was devoted, in accordance with one of the provisions of the will, to the establishment near that city of a farm school for the education of poor boys.

Since the opening of this institution in 1873 it has been conducted as a non-classical home school of high grade. The course is sufficient to fit boys from seventeen to eighteen to enter the Johns Hopkins University, or any college, in all the subjects required, except in Latin and Greek. Manual training has been introduced solely for

its educational value, as will appear in the course of the following letter from Principal W. Allan :

McDONOGH SCHOOL, *January 10, 1888.*

DEAR SIR: The following is in reply to yours of January 5, making inquiries as to industrial education :

(1) Our boys are all between the ages of ten and seventeen years, and they all come from the city of Baltimore.

(2) The schedule of studies which I herewith inclose shows that, during our school session, about thirty-one hours per week are given to the usual recitations and study under the supervision of a teacher, and nine hours per week are assigned to manual training. The manual training classes do all their work in the afternoons and on Saturdays, so as to avoid interference with the ordinary school classes. The school session embraces forty-two weeks of the year. For eight weeks of the remaining ten our boys are here, and all their work-time (six hours per day) during that period is given to manual training ; so that the manual training occupies altogether nine hours per week during the school session, and thirty-six hours per week during the summer when no other classes are in operation.

(3) The means that have been used for manual training so far are farm and garden work, a printing office, and a wood shop, well furnished with hand tools. The garden and farm work have been in use since the organization of the school in 1873, the printing office since July, 1883, and the wood shop since January, 1885. The wood shop contains at present 15 boys, all of whom are above fourteen years of age ; the printing office contains 20 printers, and in it there is no limit as to age ; the remainder of the 90 boys now constituting the school are in the farm and garden squads, except some half dozen engaged in type-writing and map-making.

(4) The aim kept in view in our manual training is simply educational. If the work done by the boys has sometimes had value, that is incidental—we have no more expected any results of commercial value from their manual training than from their study of arithmetic or English. Our purpose is, by careful teaching and supervision, to train eye and hand and mind to perform well and accurately a number of simple hand-craft operations, and to combine them in construction.

(5) We have found no difficulty in incorporating manual training into our school curriculum. We give the usual amount of time to the common school studies, and have taken that needed for manual training from what is generally put down as spare or play time. Experience leads us to believe that the progress of the school in the usual studies has not been at all lessened in consequence of the introduction of manual training. We get over as much ground, and fully as well, as we would without it.

(6) The results of manual training upon our boys have been altogether good. (1) Many of them have been helped intellectually—have done much better in their studies when once they have developed some mechanical aptness and skill. (2) All have shown the good effects of this training, not merely in the skill of hand and eye acquired, but in the power which arises from the sense of being able to create something, and from the facility which such work gives of applying knowledge and adapting means to an end. (3) The direct utility value of this training to boys, many of whom, at seventeen, enter various industrial pursuits in the city, is very great. It gives them a large advantage over others who have had no such preliminary training, but must get it in the establishments they enter.

(7) Our conclusion is that such training is a very important matter, especially to city children. Country boys and girls get a good deal of this sort of teaching in an irregular way at home, but the mass of city children have no such opportunity. To the vast majority of children in our schools manual training is not less important than the three R's. Our plans here look to an extension of facilities in this direction.

Very respectfully, your obedient servant,

W. ALLAN,
Principal.

Hon. N. H. R. DAWSON.

McDONOGH SCHOOL, 1887-88.

Schedule of the number of hours assigned each week to the various subjects of study.

Classes.	English.	German.	Mathematics.	Geography.	History.	Writing.	Book-keeping.	Shorthand.	Biology.	Physiology.	Physics.	Drawing.	Music.	Handcraft.	Total per week.
First (highest).....	3	7	8	...	4	...	...	4	...	...	5	2	2	9	44
Second.....	3	7	8	...	3	...	...	4	...	5	...	2	2	9	43
Third.....	5	6	9	...	...	...	4	...	4	...	...	2	2	9	41
Fourth.....	10	...	10	4	...	2	...	...	...	...	...	2	2	9	39
Fifth.....	10	...	8	4	...	2	...	...	...	...	...	2	2	9	37
Sixth (lowest).....	9	...	6	5	...	2	...	...	...	...	...	2	2	9	35

TOUGALOO UNIVERSITY.

Tougaloo, Miss.

[From statement of Rev. Frank G. Woodworth, Principal.]

The industries pursued here are those of most practical value to the colored people of this State. Farming is taught practically on the large plantation of the school. The instructor is a graduate of Amherst Agricultural College. Each boy not in a trade is expected to work, under the direction of the farm superintendent, for an hour each day throughout the course. A few boys give their whole day to the farm and go to school at night. Lectures on agriculture are given during the ninth year of the course. Special attention is given to stock-raising, and to the best practical methods of raising the standard crops. Attention is also given to small fruits.

Blacksmithing and wagon-making are taught by a thoroughly competent blacksmith and wagon-maker. All boys of the eighth grade have an hour daily for two terms in this department, and learn the fundamental principles. Several apprentices are indentured and serve four years, and become competent in all departments of the two trades, so that, beginning with iron and wood in the rough, they can construct excellent wagons. As a large part of the repairing for this region is done in our shop, excellent advantages for training in details of all sorts are afforded.

Boys of the eighth grade have also one term's daily instruction in tinning, learning the use of tools, how to solder, mend, and make simple utensils. In this work there are apprentices trained for four years and made complete workmen.

Carpentry is the industry of the seventh grade—daily lessons throughout the year in the use of tools, making simple articles, repairing, etc. Quite a large number of apprentices are here trained for four years, under direction of a fine carpenter. Valuable practical work has been given them in the construction of school buildings, which are considered models of good and cheap building. They will go to work at once on a church in Jackson, six miles away. In the carpenter shop they also learn something of cabinet-making, and do most creditable work.

The girls are taught all branches of household economy from dish-washing up—table-setting, chamber work, cooking, preserving, and mending and darning up to dress-making. In a small cottage, four at a time, they keep house for a month, doing all their work, buying provisions, keeping accounts, etc., thus becoming acquainted with practical house-keeping. Such training we regard as of especial value, and expect to develop it greatly.

Some conclusions reached are these:

(1) Industrial training is of prime importance for the colored people.

(2) While having value in itself considered, it is eminently helpful in ordinary school work through the discipline it gives and the habits it begets.

(3) The industries pursued should be those of the most utility to the people. A few of this class well handled are better than greater diversity.

(4) In order to success there must be thoroughly competent teachers and ample appliances. We have here commodious shops for the trades, with good facilities. With one exception—the tinsmith—all the industrial superintendents devote their whole time to their especial trades.

(5) The chief difficulty arises in the endeavor to make the necessary adjustments between head-work and hand-work, but by care this has been and can be successfully met.

Very truly yours,

FRANK G. WOODWORTH,
President Tougaloo University.

MANUAL TRAINING AT THE TULANE UNIVERSITY OF LOUISIANA.

New Orleans, La.

[Statement by President William Preston Johnston.]

TULANE UNIVERSITY, NEW ORLEANS, LA., *February 4, 1888.*

DEAR SIR:

* * * In October, 1880, I was placed in charge of the Louisiana State University and Agricultural and Mechanical College, at Baton Rouge, La., as president. This institution has the fund arising from the donation by the United States, granted by act of July 2, 1862, for the benefit of agriculture and the mechanic arts. This fund realized annually \$14,555.65, but no provision had been made for its application to the purpose of the donation. In order to do what was possible toward practically and faithfully carrying out the law, as far as possible with the limitations upon us, a mechanical course was organized, in which, in addition to a good course in English, French, and mathematics, the study of theoretical mechanics was pursued. On the industrial side a full course of drawing, principally mechanical, was established; and in the spring of 1881 a workshop was erected, a plain wooden structure, which was supplied with carpenters' benches and tools, three turning lathes with the necessary belting and shafting, a four horse-power Baxter portable engine, a jig-saw and other machinery, grindstones, some blacksmiths' tools, etc. Instruction was given in carpentry, wood-turning, and pattern-making, and a good deal of attention was paid to teaching the students vice work and the care of tools. The management of the steam-engine was also taught them. The course of study covered two years. The instruction was conducted in the industrial branches by Prof. John Hampden Randolph, Jr., a graduate of the Rensselaer Polytechnic School, Troy, N. Y. He labored under many difficulties and discouragements, but carried out our plans, to the extent of his means, with industry and intelligence. The subsequent history of the work may be learned from the authorities of that university. So impressed was I at Baton Rouge with the utility of industrial instruction that thenceforward I devoted a very close attention to the subject.

In January, 1883, I was invited by the board of administrators of the Tulane educational fund to organize an institution for higher education in New Orleans, and, in October, 1884, the Tulane University of Louisiana was established, the old University of Louisiana serving as the basis of its organization.

Mr. Tulane in his act of donation, while contemplating and directing an institution for the higher education, had said that his gift was "for the promotion and encouragement of intellectual, moral, and industrial education, among the white young persons in the city of New Orleans," and had defined education as "such a course of in-



WOOD-TURNING AND PATTERN SHOP, TULANE UNIVERSITY MANUAL TRAINING SCHOOL.

tellectual development as shall be useful and of solid worth, and not be merely ornamental and superficial," and "as being conducive to immediate *practical* benefit, rather than theoretical possible advantage."

In my first report to my board, June 4, 1885, I recommended the establishment of "workshops for instruction in wood and metal working, and complete courses in drawing." The Prussian ideal of education was adopted as our initial point of university development—"education is the harmonious and equable evolution of human character"—with the addition of Stein's formula, "By a method based on the nature of the mind, every power of the soul to be unfolded, every crude principle of life stirred up and nourished, all one-sided culture avoided." It is clear to all philosophical teachers that though systematic intellectual instruction must necessarily be their chief function, yet a proper care and development of the moral and physical sides of our nature are duties of equal, if not superior, importance to the pupil. Much of this care and development, it is true, must be implicit and incidental, rather than direct, the result of influence more than of formal instruction; still, both moral and physical training can and should be employed in "the harmonious and equable evolution of human character." Almost all educators agree on this principle, yet practically how few attempt to do much, or indeed anything, to put it into effect? Usually the conscience is satisfied with the acceptance of the principle as a dogma in an educational creed, or at most with a formal proclamation of its importance; but its realization is indefinitely postponed. We resolved to attempt in Tulane University a partial realization of it, at least; for any complete physical education was far beyond our means.

In determining what method of physical training should be adopted to attain our end, we had, of course, the experience of the past to guide us. The manual labor schools, which have served so needful a purpose in special training in Europe, and have proved such conspicuous failures in rendering rough toil and routine work attractive in this country, served as warnings; and mere military discipline and drill, except when employed for a distinct professional object, fell so far short of ideal physical culture, and, despite some benefits under certain favorable conditions, were so barren in good results, that we felt compelled to disregard them. Finally, not overlooking the advantages of gymnastics, calisthenics, stated exercise, play, and amusement, we found that our best prospect for success was in manual training—the employment of modern forms of handiwork teaching in its various phases. This department of instruction appealed to us, not by reason of its novelty, but as that branch of physical education which, in default of a rounded and perfect system, is most consonant with human reason, conducive to all the ends of education, and potent toward that intelligent energy which is the best justification of American institutions.

In shaping our theory and practice of manual training we have endeavored to conform to general principles, without losing sight of those practical results which are the sure tests of their truth. Our purpose was to adopt the very highest ideal and employ the most efficient agencies, for thus only could we fairly decide as to the merits of the system under trial. The Russian system of instruction in handiwork had met the approval of the most competent thinkers, and, as introduced into this country at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, had obtained a merited recognition. Basing our methods upon those of this most useful institution, to which we are glad to acknowledge our obligations, we placed the direction and development of our manual training in charge of Prof. John M. Ordway, who resigned an important chair there for this purpose.

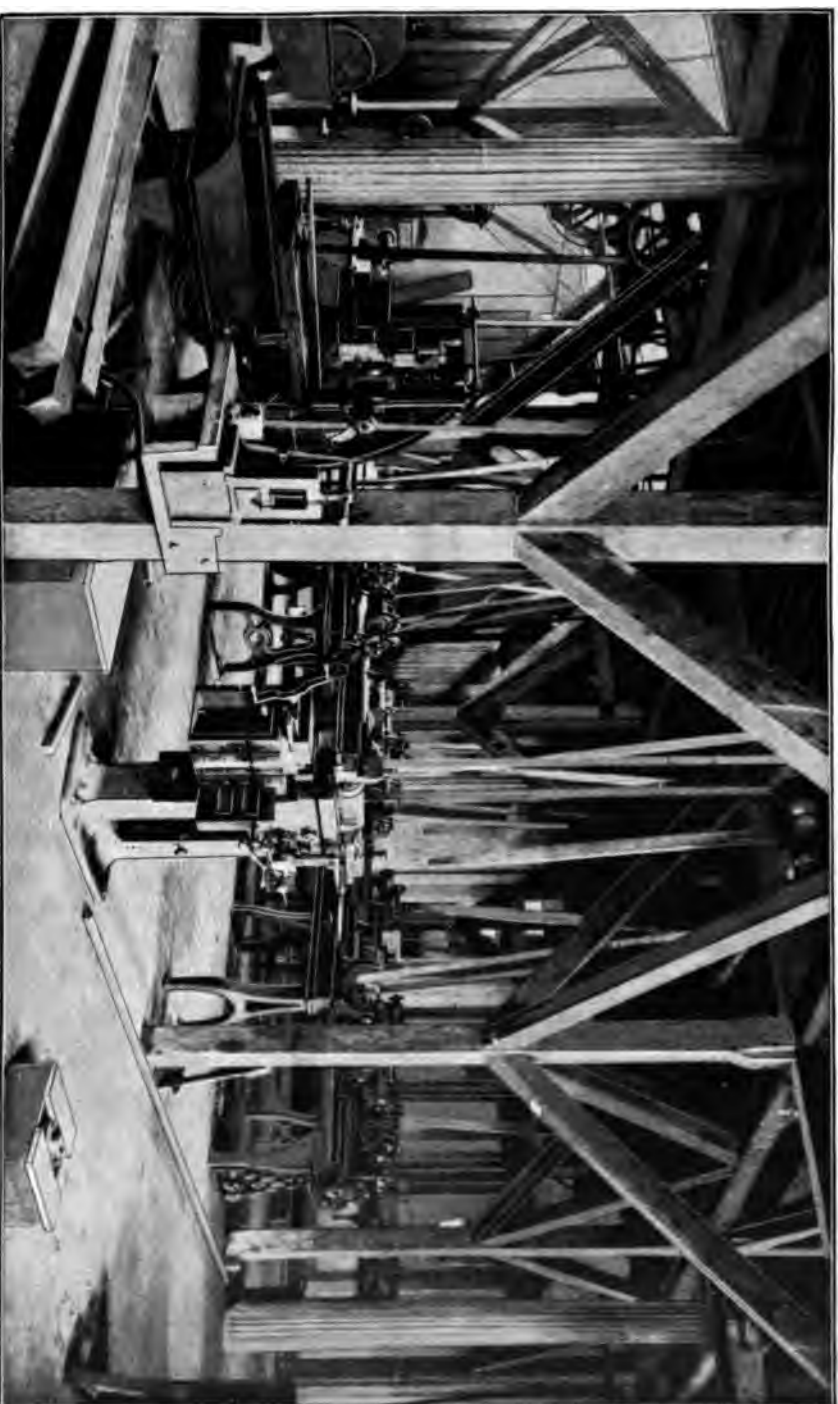
In the organization of a system of manual training, our first and chief object was to make it an integral part of the general education offered our pupils. Our intent was to secure for them, as far as possible, the benefits of physical training, directing these at the same time to useful ends. These benefits are not all, or chiefly, utilitarian merely; but, as has been repeatedly shown, have also a reflex subjective intellectual and moral effect, resulting from the organic unity of a human being. This was our

first consideration, and in carrying it out we sought to give manual training its proper place in the physical culture of our students. The school-house performs but a limited part in the entire education of its pupils; and so, even in their physical development, it can often afford but a very small part of that training which secures the most perfect and satisfactory results. But the eye, which is the "light of the body," can be taught the art of seeing, the habit of observation, the power of measuring and weighing, and the right, as vicegerent of the brain, of directing the hand. And the hand, the heaven-ordained symbol of human dominion over nature and all its realms, animate and inanimate—this too can be made the efficient agent of the mind of man, in its deftest and daintiest processes as well as in the majestic triumphs of its highest energies. Have we a right to neglect the education of these two mighty servitors of the soul? Can its complete work be done without the compliance and aid of these most useful ministers? The school-house can not perfect their entire training, but this much it can do: With a good method of manual instruction, it can train the hand and eye into an adjusted and efficient utility; and, in this process it can strengthen and discipline muscle and brain and bodily organs, and can stimulate, enlighten, and regulate thought and will. Such a method we have endeavored to discover and apply, and we think we have succeeded.

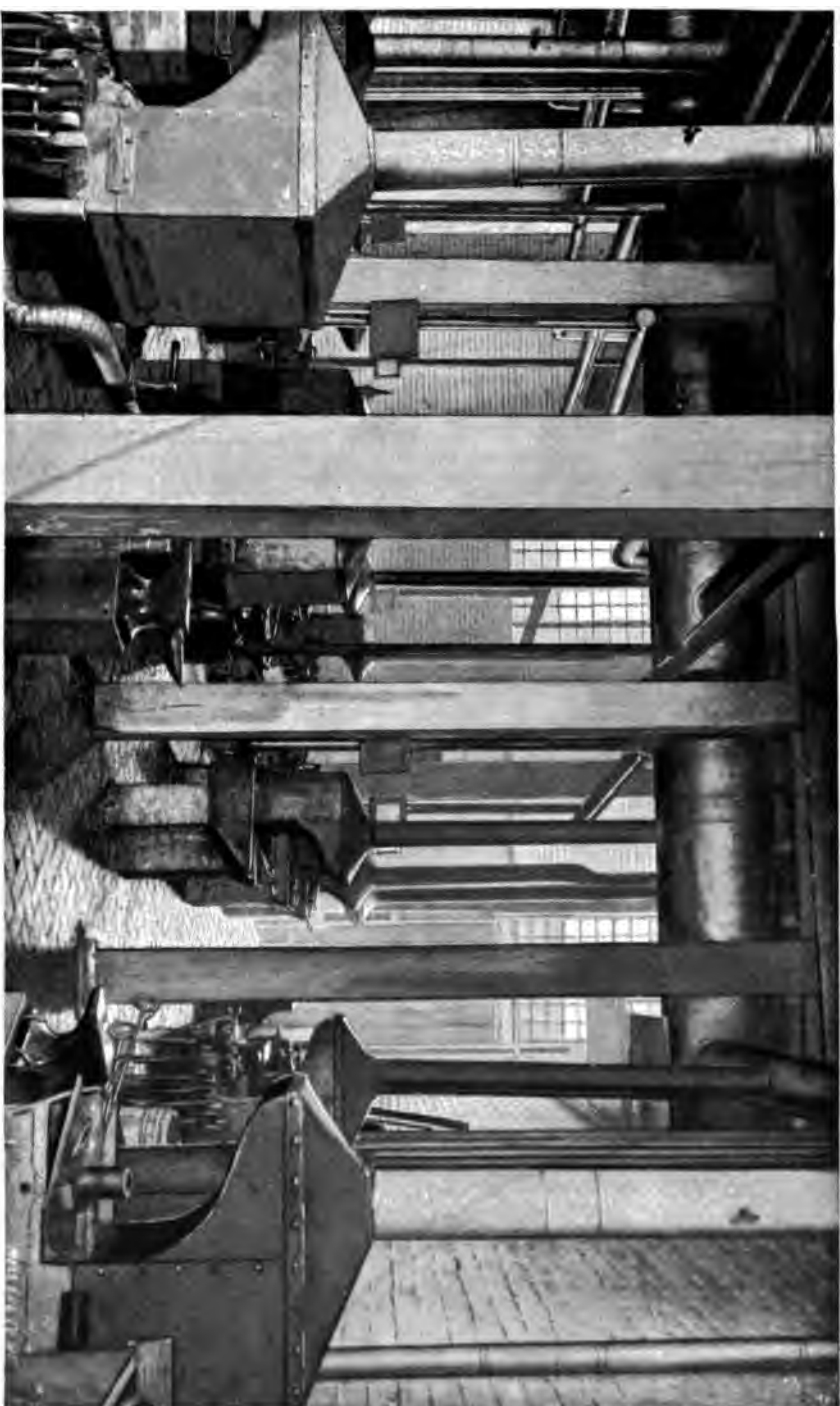
With so large a purpose then, and viewing handwork as a necessary part of general education, we did not limit ourselves to the establishment of a school of mechanic arts, or of a manual training school, except in name, or indeed of an industrial school of any kind. Our group of workshops has been treated simply as a laboratory for the High School and College Mechanical Course, in which manual training was given to all as an integral part of their general education, and for this reason it has been made compulsory on all students who entered those departments. This compulsory feature, which recognizes labor, dignifies it. The training in the High School forms a sufficient and valuable, and, as we believe, indispensable, basis for a thorough professional education in mechanical engineering. It leads directly to it, moreover; so that the Freshman in the Mechanical Course, who begins the working of cold metal with the iron lathe, to be followed by machine construction, comes to his work well prepared for it. In our prospectus we used the following language:

"A manual training school has been established. It is considered as the workshop, or laboratory, of the High School for technical training; but other students of Tulane College are admitted to it on easy conditions. It is not intended to teach trades to young men, but to make them experts in the principles and handicraft of wood-working, iron-working, and machine construction. The appliances are as nearly perfect, and the scheme of instruction as thorough, as in any institution in the United States. The effort will be made to dignify and elevate labor without interfering with more abstract pursuits. No revolution in education is aimed at; but rather moral expansion and development, through the cultivation of recognized and valuable mental and physical functions and activities; the whole system constituting a rounded and harmonious evolution of the student as man and citizen."

But we do not regard with indifference the practical utility of this instruction. The student who leaves us for his life career goes forth, we believe, better equipped for his work in the world than his neighbor who has not had the same training. He is at least a handier man; hand and eye have been co-ordinated; a large number of useful small arts have been acquired, with the knowledge and practice of the use of tools; a more observant habit has been cultivated; the language of the pencil has been mastered, by which the hand speaks to the eye; the lore of wood and iron has been learned, by which modern science has transformed the face of the earth; and rules, principles, methods, and aspirations have been gained which will make the possessor an abler and more rounded man. During the training, under competent instruction, his manual skill frequently becomes merged, or defined, in a preparation for some industrial calling; and, if the student has special gifts or aptitudes, a profession or vocation may, as often happens during his studies, be clearly indicated or opened to



IRON-WORKING ROOM, TULANE UNIVERSITY MANUAL TRAINING SCHOOL.



INTERIOR OF BLACKSMITH SHOP, TULANE UNIVERSITY MANUAL TRAINING SCHOOL.

him. But, in any event, he leaves the institution better prepared for the battle of life, and with a higher conception of the dignity of labor. He may become a skillful artisan at the least; but he is really already competent to achieve more.

These, then, were our objects, and we are confident that they are being successfully carried out. But we found that most of the great manual training schools had been organized for the promotion of skill in the industrial arts merely; and, as our aims seemed so different in such important respects from these very meritorious institutions, we did not hesitate to depart from or modify their methods, and to adapt our plans to our own special conditions. As has already been stated, we made the instruction in the manual department compulsory. This applies to all students in the High School, numbering about 240, except a few in the sub-freshman class of the classical course, who are only required to finish the wood-working. Students in the mechanical course in the college were also required to take manual training in the freshman and sophomore years, in addition to their previous high school course, and students in the mathematical and natural science courses in college had also to take it through the freshman year. The college students who have manual training among their college duties now number 14; but next year the number will be much greater.

The Manual Training School building was originally erected as a Turners' Hall, at a cost of \$60,000. We purchased it for \$11,000, and adapted it to our uses at an expense of \$4,000 more. The equipment has cost about \$35,000; in all, \$50,000, which was provided for by a special donation by Mr. Tulane. The building is about one-third of a mile from our High School building, and has a frontage of 64 feet on Dryades Street, and 125 feet on Lafayette Street. The Dryades Street front, including the entrance on Lafayette, is three stories high. On the lower floor is located the director's room, and a large apartment fitted with desks, casts, etc., for clay modeling and wood-carving. The second and third floors are occupied by the drawing classes, with every requirement in the way of desks, casts, etc., and gas lights for night classes. The remainder of the building is occupied by the shops. The upper floor of this part, formerly a ball-room, has been divided into two apartments, with lofty ceilings, for the use of the wood-working classes. In one apartment are thirty carpenters' benches, of hard wood, and a full set of tools. Two or three classes occupy these benches daily. In the other apartment are thirty benches with turning lathes, for the second year's students, and also a circular saw, jig-saw, scroll-saw, planer, and other machinery for wood-work.

The lower floor, formerly used as a gymnasium, is divided between the blacksmith shop and the machine room. The former has a brick floor, and is provided with thirty forges, anvils, and sets of tools, and apparatus for ventilation, etc., all of the most approved pattern. The remaining central part of the building contains the engine room, boiler house, and a machine shop with twelve iron lathes of varying pattern, and much other machinery for advanced instruction. A small foundry will be erected this year.

The following tables give our courses of study:

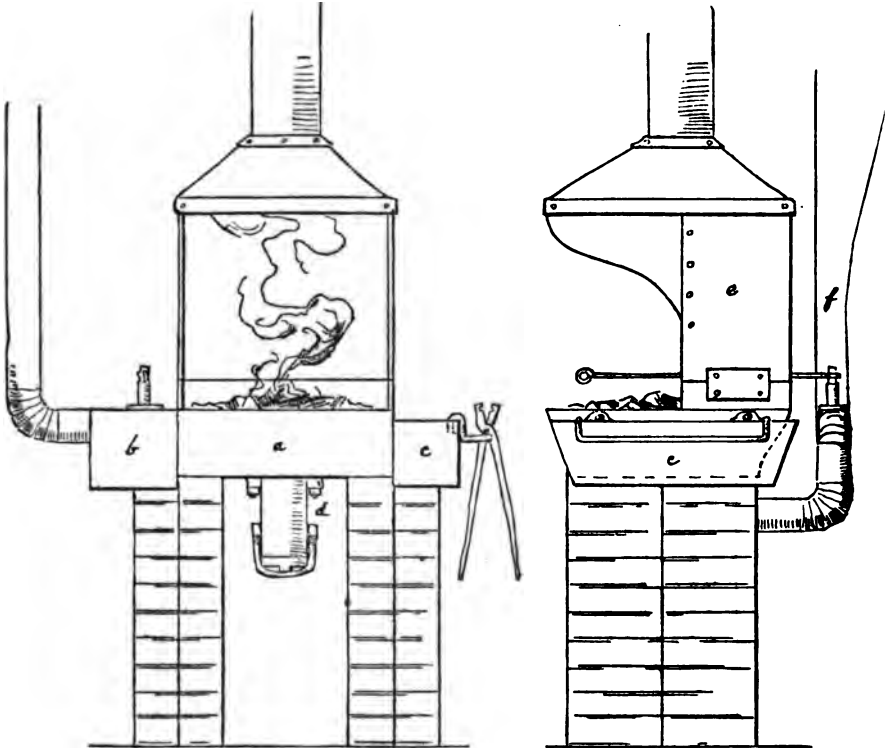
COURSE OF STUDY AT TULANE HIGH SCHOOL.

Class.	Classical course.	Hours per week.	Literary and scientific.	Hours per week.	Mechanical course.	Hours per week.	Commercial course.	Hours per week.
Sub-freshman.	English.....	5	English.....	5	English.....	5	English.....	5
	Mathematics.....	5	Mathematics.....	5	Mathematics.....	5	Mathematics.....	5
	Latin.....	5	Latin.....	5	French or German.....	5	French or German.....	5
	Greek.....	5	Drawing.....	5	Drawing.....	5	Spanish.....	5
	Elocution.....	2	Manual training.....	5	Manual training.....	5	Book-keeping.....	5
Sub-freshman.	Physiology and hygiene.....	1	Elocution.....	2	Elocution.....	2	Elocution.....	2
			Physiology and hygiene.....	1	Physiology and hygiene.....	1	Physiology and hygiene.....	1
			Physical science.....	5	Physical science.....	5	Physical science.....	5
Intermediate.	Elocution.....	2	Elocution.....	2	Elocution.....	2	Elocution.....	2
	English.....	5	English.....	5	English.....	5	English.....	5
	Mathematics.....	5	Mathematics.....	5	Mathematics.....	5	Mathematics.....	5
	Latin.....	5	Latin.....	5	French or German.....	5	French or German.....	5
	Drawing.....	5	Drawing.....	5	Drawing.....	5	Drawing.....	5
Intermediate.	Manual training.....	5	Manual training.....	5	Manual training.....	5	Manual training.....	5
	Greek.....	5	Natural science.....	3	Natural science.....	3	Spanish.....	5
			Pennmanship.....	5	Pennmanship.....	5	Pennmanship.....	5
Preparatory.	English.....	5	English.....	5	English.....	5	English.....	5
	Reading.....	1	Reading.....	1	Reading.....	1	Reading.....	1
	History.....	1	History.....	1	History.....	1	History.....	1
	Latin.....	5	Latin.....	5	French or German.....	5	French or German.....	5
	Mathematics.....	5	Mathematics.....	5	Mathematics.....	5	Mathematics.....	5
Preparatory.	Pennmanship.....	3	Pennmanship.....	3	Pennmanship.....	3	Pennmanship.....	3
	Drawing.....	5	Drawing.....	5	Drawing.....	5	Drawing.....	5
	Manual training.....	5	Manual training.....	5	Manual training.....	5	Manual training.....	5

COURSE OF STUDY AT TULANE COLLEGE.

Class.	Classical course.	Literary.	Natural science.	Mathematical.	Mechanical.	Commercial.	Hours per week.
Senior.	Mental science..... 5	Mental science..... 5	Chemical laboratory..... 9	Chemical laboratory..... 9	Chemical laboratory..... 6	Accounts..... 3	3
	Political science..... 2	Political science..... 2	Biological laboratory..... 9	Physical laboratory..... 6	Applied mechanics..... 4	Commercial law..... 4	4
Junior.	Rhetoric..... 2	Rhetoric..... 2	Rhetoric..... 2	Rhetoric..... 2	Rhetoric..... 2	Rhetoric..... 2	2
	German..... 3	German..... 3	German..... 3	German..... 3	Theory of tools, etc..... 2	Technology..... 2	2
	English..... 3	English..... 3	Mental science..... 2	Math. physics..... 3	German or French..... 3	German or French..... 3	3
	Greek..... 3	Latin..... 3	Political science..... 2	Mental science..... 3	Materials of con..... 3	Materials of con..... 3	3
	Latin..... 2	Physiology..... 1	Physiology..... 1	Political science..... 2	Mental science..... 3	Mental science..... 3	3
	Physiology..... 1			Physiology..... 1	Political science..... 2	Political science..... 2	2
					Physiology..... 1	Political economy..... 3	3
						Physiology..... 1	1
	Latin..... 4	Latin..... 4	Physical laboratory..... 6	Physical laboratory..... 6	Physical laboratory..... 6	Accounts..... 3	3
	Greek..... 4	French..... 4	Chemical laboratory..... 4	Analytical mechanics..... 4	Analytical mechanics..... 4	Chemical laboratory..... 4	4
Sophomore.	German..... 2	German..... 2	German..... 4	German..... 4	German or French..... 4	German or French..... 4	4
	English..... 2	English..... 2	English..... 2	English..... 2	English..... 2	English..... 2	2
	History..... 1	History..... 1	History..... 1	History..... 1	History..... 1	History..... 1	1
	Chemistry..... 4	Chemistry..... 4	Chemistry..... 4	Chemistry..... 4	Chemistry..... 4	Chemistry..... 4	4
	Astronomy..... 1	Astronomy..... 1	Astronomy..... 2	Astronomy..... 2	Astronomy..... 2	Astronomy..... 1	1
		Geology..... 2	Geology..... 2	Geology..... 2	Geology..... 2	Geology..... 2	2
			Mathematics..... 3	Mathematics..... 3	Mathematics..... 3	Spanish..... 3	3
	Latin..... 4	Latin..... 4	Physical laboratory..... 2	Physical laboratory..... 2	Physical laboratory..... 2	Physical laboratory..... 2	2
	Greek..... 4	German..... 4	Rhetoric..... 1	Rhetoric..... 1	Drawing..... 2	Accounts..... 3	3
	English..... 1	Rhetoric..... 1	English..... 1	English..... 1	Manual training..... 5	Telegraphy and short-hand..... 6	6
Freshman.	French..... 3	French..... 3	French..... 3	French..... 3	Rhetoric..... 1	Rhetoric..... 1	1
	Mathematics..... 3	Mathematics..... 3	Mathematics..... 6	Mathematics..... 6	English..... 2	English..... 2	2
	Physics..... 3	Physics..... 3	Physics..... 6	Physics..... 6	Mathematics..... 6	Com'l correspondence..... 2	2
					Physica..... 6	Com'l history..... 2	2
						Com'l arithmetic..... 3	3
						Physica..... 6	6
	Latin..... 4	Latin..... 4	Physical geography..... 2	Physical geography..... 2	Physical geography..... 2	Physical geography..... 2	2
	Greek..... 4	German..... 4	Biological..... 3	Biological..... 3	Biological..... 3	Commercial arithmetic..... 3	3
	Rhetoric..... 3	Rhetoric..... 3	Drawing..... 6	Drawing..... 6	Drawing..... 6	Drawing..... 6	6
	English..... 3	Rhetoric..... 3	Rhetoric..... 3	Rhetoric..... 3	Rhetoric..... 3	Rhetoric..... 3	3

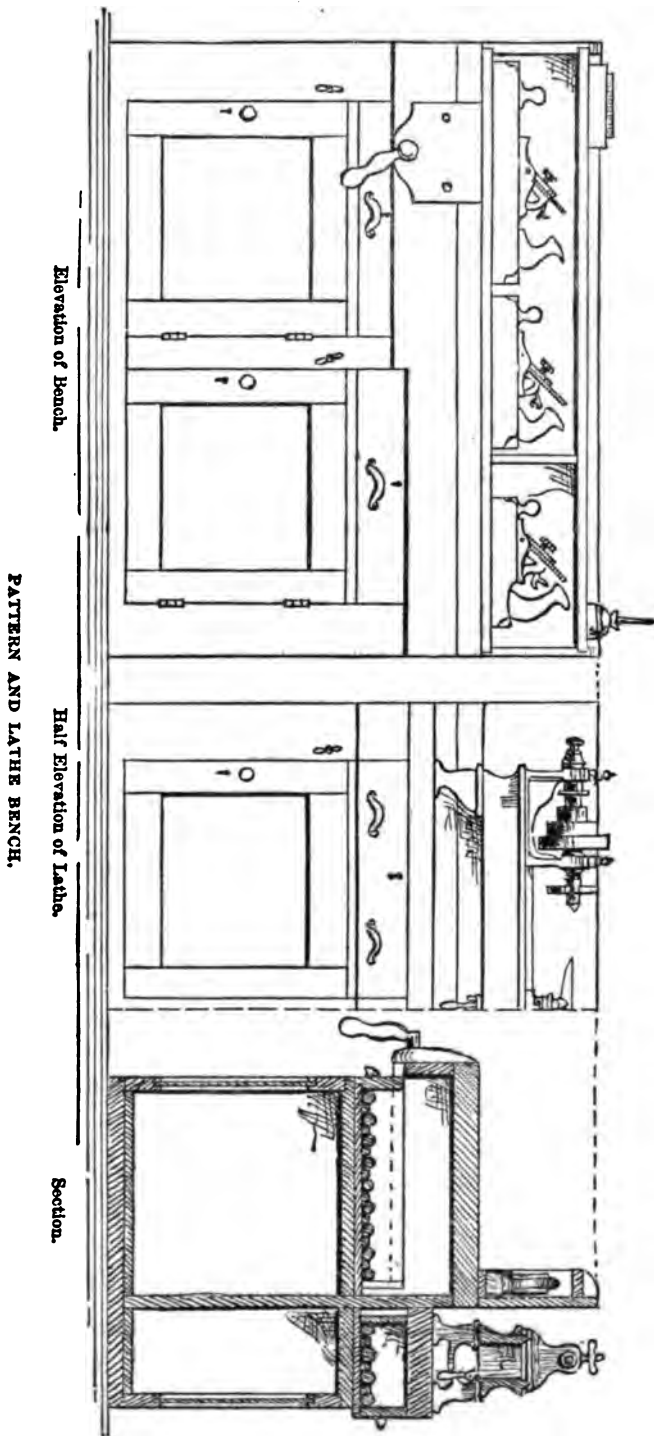
To enter the lowest, or preparatory, class of the High School, the pupil must be twelve years of age, and with a good grammar school preparation, including the whole of arithmetic. The average age of entrance, however, is about thirteen. The pupils are heterogeneous in previous education and tendencies, and it requires full year for them to acquire the tone and adapt themselves to the habits of the school. They are required, in addition to their ordinary school studies, to attend five days a week at the Manual Training School for one hour and a half, alternately in the drawing class and in the carpenter shop. This gives an average of only seven hours a half per week at that school, one-half of which time is spent in drawing. The boys are not urged, nor kept under any very strict surveillance of task work, since the interest in it is found a sufficient stimulus for at least 90 per cent. of them, and the classes usually quit work with reluctance. This is, we think, largely due to the habit



FRONT AND SIDE VIEWS OF FORGE.

a, Cast iron body, lined with fire-brick; b, cast iron coal box; c, water tank; d, tuyère box; e, wrought iron hood, connected with exhaust fan; f, blast pipe, connected with Sturtevant blower.

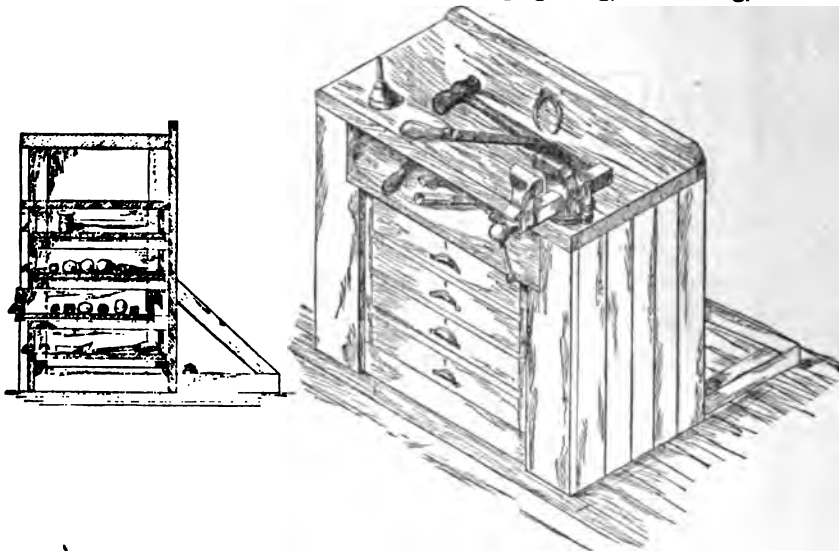
of self-control cultivated in every department of the institution, and to the example of the more advanced classes, but also to the pleasure taken in the work itself. From the very first, every object given them to manufacture has some utility, even if it be no more than a plain pine box; and every lesson embodies some principle of construction in concrete form. These forms are typical and constitute a true alphabet in wood, and their combinations into useful articles spell out a thought just as really as a word expresses the idea of any object. A further and more complex evolution in joinery and wood-turning and pattern-making makes up a grammar and rhetoric in wood, and a literature even, when a genuine æsthetic spirit inspires the decoration.



The second year's teaching attempts as much of all this as time permits, and the sense of beauty, as well as of utility, is constantly stimulated in the pupil. This is greatly aided by the instruction in drawing, which begins with the pupil's entrance into the High School, and is carried on by alternate lessons with the hand-work. The wood-working course lasts two years. With a more stringent system and some additional hours per week, and with older students, this course could easily be completed in a single year; but we find it more advantageous to the pupil to make the training an incident of his development, rather than his business at school. Our experience is, that our method of instruction is more truly a training than if more urgently pressed upon the student, and affects more essentially his mental habits. We do not find that it interferes at all with his intellectual progress, but supplies to some extent the place of gymnastic exercises and amusements.

The third year in the High School is devoted to blacksmithing, foundry work, and other work in iron. What has been said about the alphabet in wood might be repeated in respect to typical forms in iron, though these seem less definitely ascertained. But by the time the student enters this course he is sufficiently disciplined in every way to work with purpose and intelligence. For the small number who are thoroughly unfitted through physical inability or inaptness from profitably pursuing this course, an advanced course in wood-work is substituted. Thus, when the pupil completes his three years' course in the High School, he is generally a fairly trained mechanic, though without the practice necessary to a successful artisan, which he may speedily acquire if he adopts such a career. If he does so, he is, as a rule, fully as well equipped in actual mechanical skill as the apprentice who has spent those three years at manual labor alone, while he has a more important possession in a disciplined and quickened intellect.

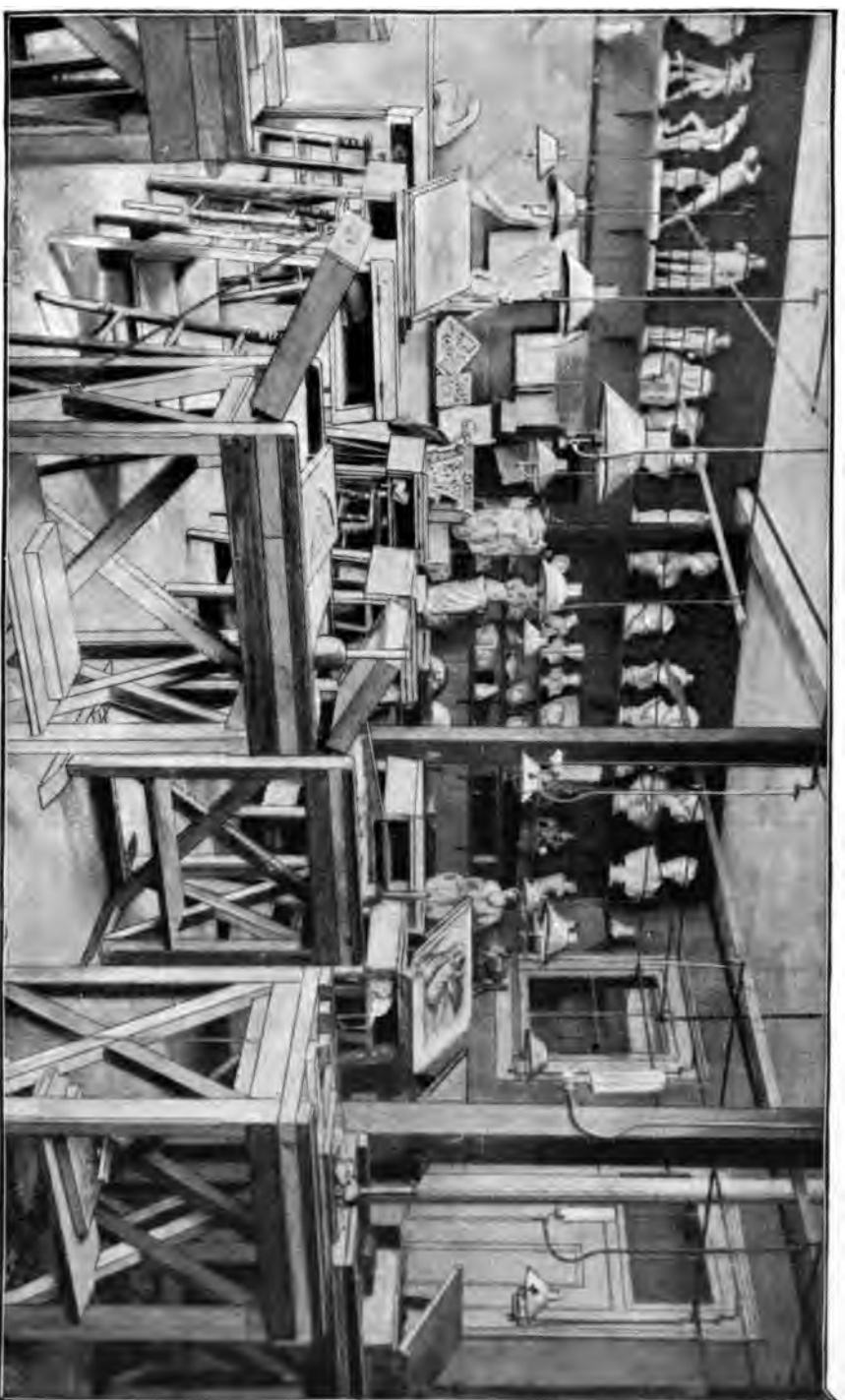
When the High School student enters Tulane College, if he selects the mathematical, natural science, or mechanical course, his shop work is continued through the freshman year, and this advanced work includes forging, filing, iron-turning, and foundry



BENCH FOR VICE WORK, WITH DRAWERS FOR TOOLS.

dery practice. The students of the mechanical course pursue their practice one year more in machine construction, and, indeed, until graduation, have the opportunity for improvement in this direction.

It has already been mentioned that during the three years spent in the High School the lessons on alternate days were given in drawing. Without criticism of the meth-



WOOD-CARVING ROOM, TULANE UNIVERSITY MANUAL TRAINING SCHOOL.

ods of the manual training schools that I examined before organizing our own, and recognizing the difference in purpose which existed, I think we may fairly claim to have organized our drawing department with wider scope and greater thoroughness than any of them. The three years' course in the High School embraces about 425 hours of actual work in the class-room, during which the attention and instruction are constant. About 200 lessons are given to Freshmen in three of the college courses, and about 370 to the students in the mechanical course, leading to engineering, architecture, etc. This advanced work is varied to meet the special needs of the student.

Drawing is considered as a language, or mode of expressing ideas, and as being, therefore, not less important than linguistic study, on account of its disciplinary as well as its direct practical value. All the High School pupils are taught more or less of free-hand or mechanical drawing and design, according to their needs in the different courses.

The students are required to draw working plans, geometrical projections, and shaded representations in perspective of the objects they manufacture in the workshops. They thus not only acquire skill with the pencil, but obtain and fix a vivid mental picture of the object itself. In this process the material thing is first conceived in idea, then portrayed, and finally manufactured, the mental conception being thus put into concrete form. It seems hardly possible that this can be effected without stimulating the imagination and intellect. While the artistic side is not altogether neglected, attention is directed mainly to the industrial aspects of the subject. The exercises consist mostly in drawing directly from the objects, while the pupil is also instructed in the various auxiliary geometrical problems and conventional devices which facilitate clear expression. The student is expected to observe constantly the relation of the object to the mode of its representation, and to become self-directing, without wasting time in copying the delineations of others. As the work advances the imagination is cultivated by the consideration of projections and shadows, and by drawing ideal sections, by sketching from memory, and by making original designs.

Time alone can reveal how far our method of manual training will prove a benefit to our students. Pursued in moderation, and with due reference to other important agencies in human development, we do not doubt its value. In our special condition in Louisiana, where this side of education has been almost wholly neglected, and where the demands are urgent for an education that will enable our more intelligent youth to take the lead in industrial enterprises of every kind, we are confident that we are pursuing a policy which, though practical, is yet neither sordid nor narrow, but essentially liberal and wise.

The administrators of the Tulane education fund recognize, as one of the important duties of the University to higher education, the enlightenment of the masses of the people and the elevation of the level of the public intelligence. Indeed, it is thus only that a proper *clientèle* can be provided in Louisiana, able and willing to receive the high education. With this end in view, and until other more direct agencies could be established to carry on such work, the University has afforded the public numerous courses of free popular lectures on the topics most interesting and useful to city audiences, much to their gratification and advantage. They have kept open a Free Reading Room, for which there is a special endowment. A Free Circulating Library was carried on for one year, until its administration was assumed by another public-spirited organization. A comprehensive Scientific Museum was opened to the public without charge. But the most inspiring and immediately practical work of the University for the public, outside of its academic instruction, was the inauguration of free classes in drawing.

The principal object of our free classes in drawing was to promote industrial education. The following extract from last year's report gives a full and fair account of the work accomplished.

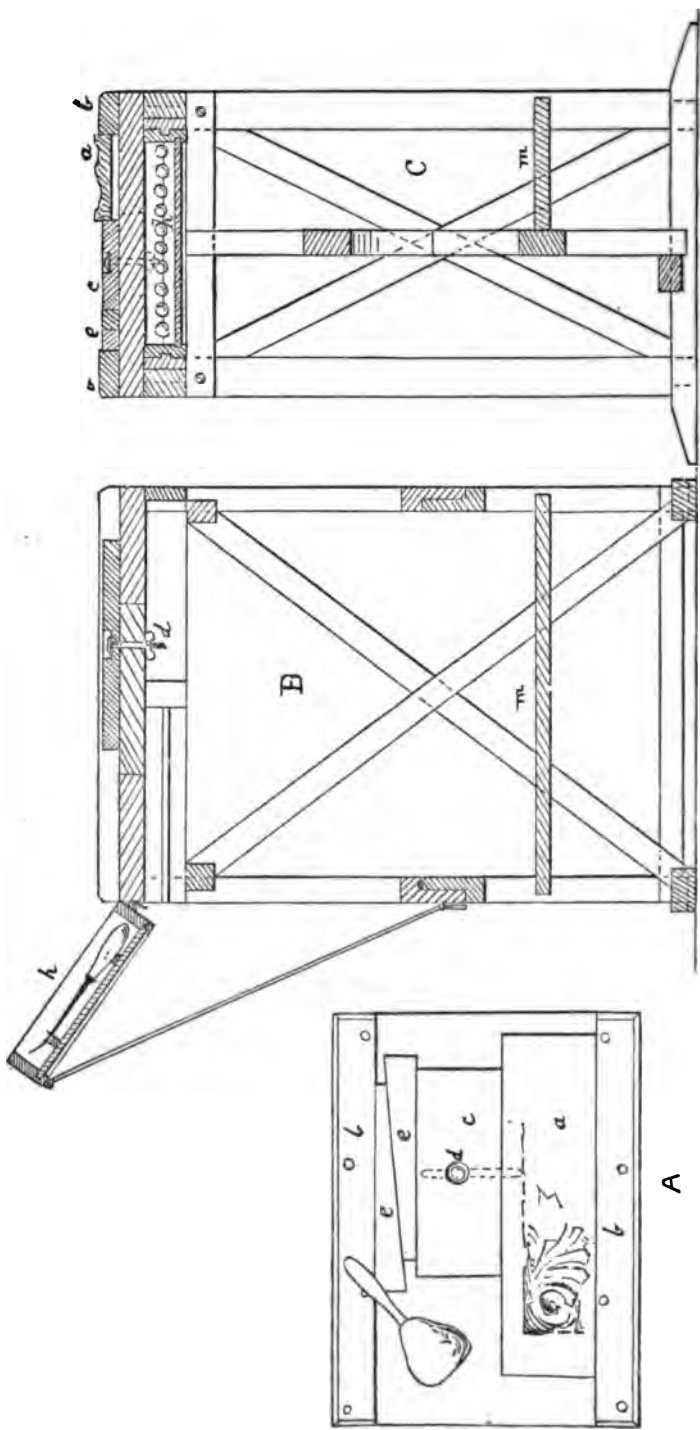


TABLE FOR WOOD CARVING.

A, Top of table. B, Longitudinal section. C, Cross-section: a, block to be carved; b, fixed cleats; c, sliding block, pressed hard against block a by wedges e e, and secured by clamp d; A, tool drawer, in position for working, when not in use this drawer can be unhooked and slid into place, as shown in C.

FREE DRAWING CLASSES, SESSION 1886-87

The total admissions to the free drawing classes for the past session have been as follows:

Classes for women.

Saturday drawing, advanced	62
Saturday drawing, elementary	91
Saturday annex, No. 1	25
Saturday annex, No. 2	20
Saturday annex, No. 3	133
Class of methods, elementary	62
Decorative art class	118
Total number of women admitted	541

Classes for men.

Free-hand class, advanced	15
Free-hand class, elementary	35
Mechanical class, advanced	9
Mechanical class, elementary	45
Elementary, free-hand	7
Architectural class	17
Preparatory drawing class	170
Total number of men	298
Total admissions	839

About four hundred students followed the instruction earnestly and reached the required standard. Two hundred and forty-seven of these received certificates graded as "satisfactory," "meritorious," and "distinguished."

The mechanical drawing classes are modelled after those of Boston and Baltimore, which have reached an advanced position in the subject, and are intended to aid those mechanics who are striving to improve in their work, by acquiring this necessary language, by which they can develop the idea of the designer from his drawings or give form to their own ideas for others to perfect. Some practice in free-hand is included in the course.

The advanced free-hand evening drawing for men and youths, third year, has passed into the study of light and shade in charcoal, has done good work in the study of anatomy, besides completing the study of historic ornament and model drawing. This is the most advanced position reached in free-hand in all the classes, and the enthusiasm shown by its members has led to the organization of a sketch club for the study of local scenery. Of the fifteen students who entered this class, ten passed in the final examination.

The elementary free-hand evening drawing class for men and youths, second year, deals mostly with free-hand perspective, with some shading, the elements of historic ornament, and the proportions of the human head and figure.

The advanced mechanical evening drawing class for men and youths, third year, has occupied itself with the study and drawing of cams and toothed gearing of various sorts.

The elementary mechanical evening class for men and youths pursues mainly the study of solid geometry and the making of working drawings from wood and iron, details of construction, with the study of helical and other curves and their applications, also projections and shadows.

The architectural evening drawing class for men and youths took up mechanical perspective as applied to buildings, and carried on the study of historic ornament and free-hand perspective.

The preparatory evening drawing class for men and youths was introduced this session, to raise the grade of the work done in the other classes. The work of this class is a combination of mechanical and free-hand drawing, so arranged that the student may elect at the end of the session whether his study for the next year shall be purely free-hand or mechanical. All the above classes have attended six months, two evenings a week.

In the evening decorative art classes for women the first year's work has embraced outlining with chalk and charcoal, the elements of design, both in conventional and natural forms of flowers, foliage, etc.

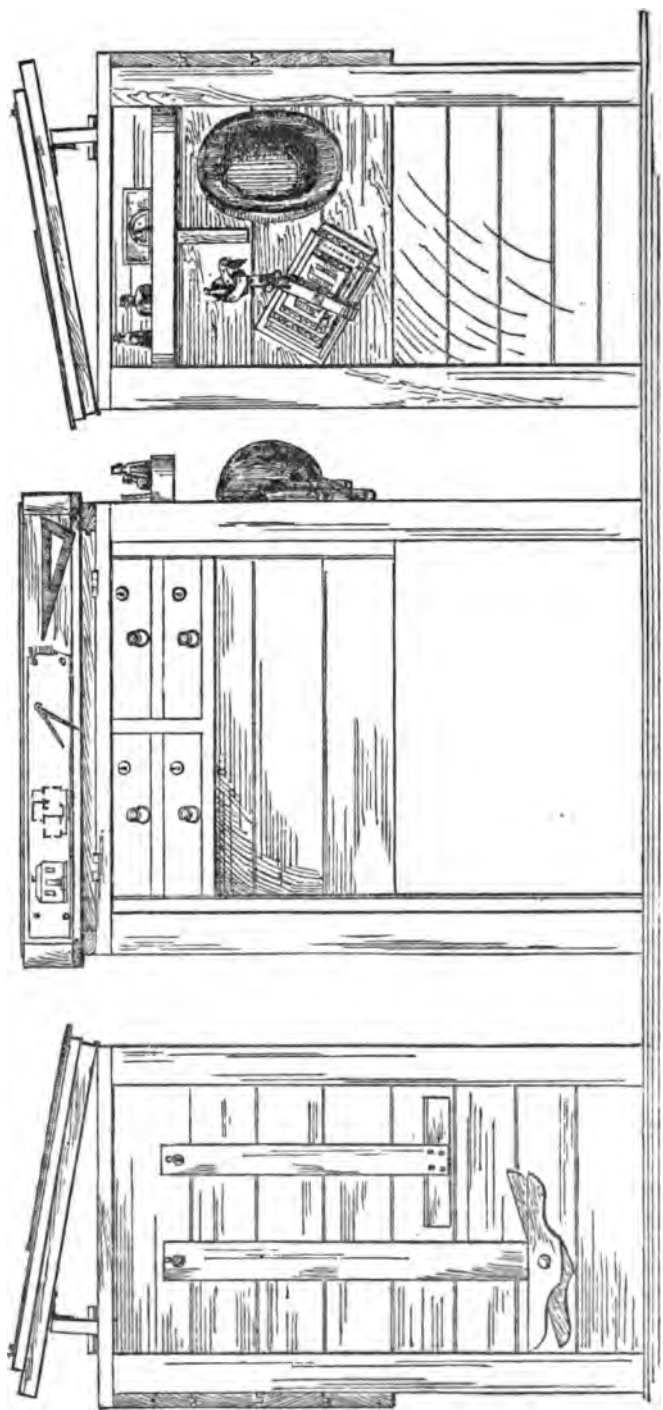


TABLE FOR MECHANICAL DRAWING.
This table has an adjustable top, and four drawers for instruments, for students of four successive divisions.

The second-year class was divided. One section, having been instructed by Professor Ordway in the use of tools and wood-working, devoted the remainder of the session to clay modelling and wood-carving, in which lines good work has been done. Another section of this class, having elected to follow the study of color, has been practising with designers' dry colors. Too much praise cannot be given to the students who have devoted two sessions to drawing from the natural flowers and foliage. Some of the drawings of flowers show a fidelity to nature equal to the best.

The Tulane Decorative Art League is an outgrowth of this class. Art pottery, wood-carving, fresco, and art needle-work are a few of the subjects which have been more or less developed. The interest in pottery has taken the form of the New Orleans Art Pottery Company, which has been organized by members of this class. Art needle-work has also received attention, and members are prepared to form classes and give instruction in this branch of art.

The Teachers' Saturday class of School Methods treats drawing as a branch of common school education, and instruction has aimed at a symmetrical course, to include the most important branches.

The study of form surface and design is carried on by the use of clay modelling, cutting paper, arranging sticks, rings, and blocks, followed by practice in the use of scale drawings and flower forms from nature. In the second year the study is enlarged to include the elements of shading, and the test for the class has been the ability to represent the appearance of objects in outline.

Our free drawing classes, organized last October, foot up with the following summary, February 1, 1888. The numbers before the close of the session will probably about reach those of last year.

SATURDAY CLASSES.

Teachers' class in methods, first year.....	121
Teachers' class in methods, second year.....	43
Drawing, preparatory.....	196
Drawing, second year.....	79

EVENING CLASSES.

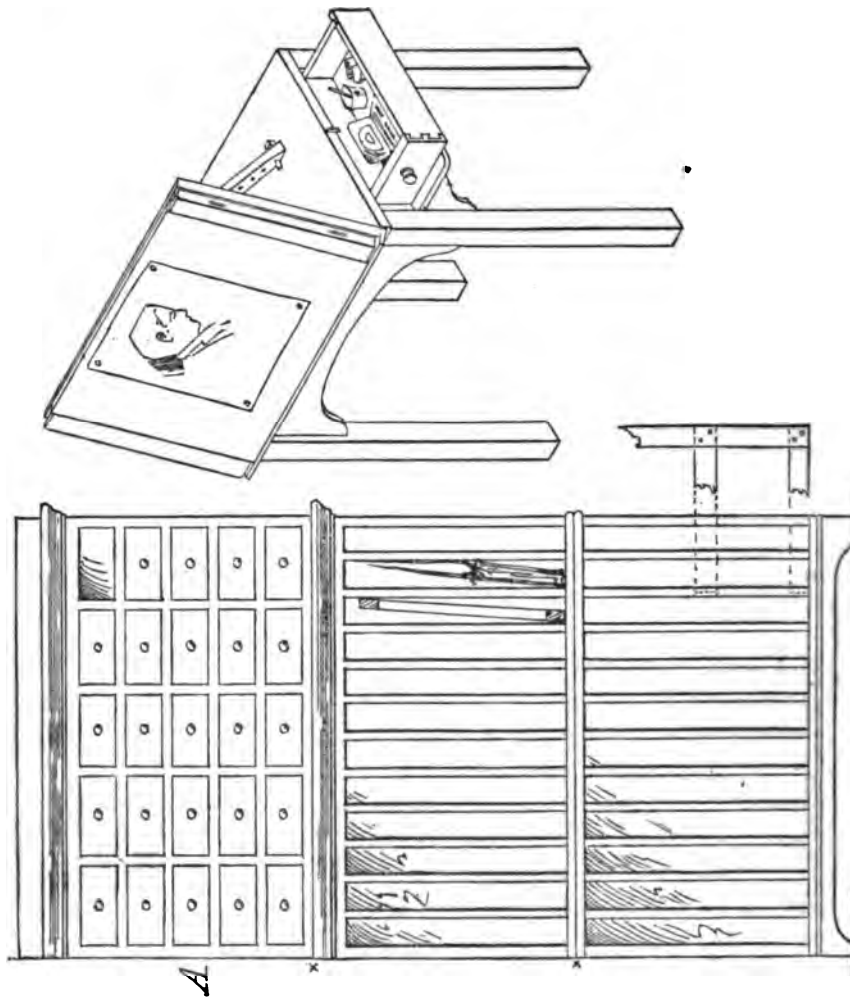
Decorative Art class for Women.....	74
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For men.

Advanced free-hand, fourth year, 6 }	57
Advanced free-hand, third year, 20 }	
Advanced free-hand, second year, 31 }	
Advanced mechanical, fourth year, 3 }	79
Advanced mechanical, third year, 11 }	
Advanced mechanical, second year, 65 }	
Architectural drawing.....	14
Preparatory drawing class.....	114
Total.....	777

The classes are now more fully organized than last year, and work with a clearer purpose and greater steadiness. The character of the work, too, is higher and better. It is confidently believed that we are laying a firm foundation, upon which a solid structure both of skill and culture in art may be built in New Orleans. That our work is germinal is evinced by the frequent employment of our pupils as teachers, and the more general diffusion of taste for and interest in industrial art and the fine arts here.

A number of lady pupils, who have taken their initiative in industrial art in the free drawing classes, have, since the opening of the H. Sophie Newcomb Memorial College for white girls and young women as a department of Tulane University last October, joined its art classes for the prosecution of their studies in the higher branches. In that college all the branches taught in the free drawing classes may be pursued with a more liberal allowance of time.



DRAWING TABLE FOR LADIES.

The instruments are kept in drawers in the case A, which has spaces below for portfolios and drawing boards. The table top may be set nearly vertical, and used without a drawing board for chalk sketching with a free arm.

On the whole, Tulane University adds its testimony to that of the other institutions which are giving a trial to manual training by a verdict of unqualified approval of it, both in theory and practice.

I am, very respectfully, yours,

WM. PRESTON JOHNSTON,
President.

ART AND INDUSTRIAL TRAINING IN THE H. SOPHIE NEWCOMB MEMORIAL COLLEGE,
TULANE UNIVERSITY.

The study of drawing for girls at Newcomb College is made an important branch in all the courses, and is required in one course, the industrial, in which it can be pursued to graduation.

The elements of line drawing as applied to the principles of representation, both in working drawings and in perspective, and to beauty of curve and harmonious combination in decoration, are taught during the first two years, to all alike, with quarterly examinations as tests of proficiency.

The students are instructed in the elements of practical geometry, plane and solid, and acquire delicacy and skill in the use of mechanical instruments in inking their works. During this time students are expected to acquire the knowledge and skill to represent correctly the outlines of objects, fruit, flowers, etc., as they appear, and to make a practical working drawing of any simple piece of furniture. They begin the study of historic ornament in line drawing and flat washes, and also take up the elements of shading.

After the second year the students attend the different studios for practice in the following branches: Outlining and shading from plaster casts; making color studies of historical styles of ornament and color design for interior decoration; painting from natural foliage, or group, in water color or oil color; drawing in charcoal and modelling in clay from antique sculpture; wood-carving; pottery and china decoration; and, finally, drawing and painting from life. To this will be added, in the industrial course, instruction in the principles of architecture, as applied in the construction and design of dwelling-houses and other buildings.

There is also a normal class for teachers of art and industrial design. Its graduates, before receiving a diploma, must have completed all the studies named, and acquired a knowledge of their applications to various kinds of schools by practice in teaching the lower classes, under the supervision of a professor.

FLOOR PLANS, TULANE UNIVERSITY MANUAL TRAINING SCHOOL.

[See Plates.]

I.—UPPER FLOOR.

- A*, Carpenters' shop with thirty benches, each having two drawers for tools, and four closets.
- B*, Wood-turning and pattern shop.
 - (*a*) Elevator for stock; (*b*) large lathe; (*c*) double circular saw; (*d*) grindstone; (*e*) buzz planer; (*f*) jig-saws; (*y*) thirty benches, with lathe on one side and joiners' table on the other.
- C*, Mechanical drawing-room with sixty-two tables. These tables have been crowded somewhat, so as to accommodate large free evening classes in drawing.
- D*, Reception room.

II.—MIDDLE FLOOR.

- E*, Gallery for iron stock and water-tanks.
- F*, Lumber gallery.
 - (*g*) Circular saw; (*h*) emery grinder.
- G H*, Free-hand drawing-rooms, with seventy-two and twenty-four desks, respectively.

III.—GROUND PLAN.

I, Blacksmiths' shop, with thirty forges.

J, Iron-working room.

(*l*) Engine; (*m*) grindstone; (*n*) machine-drill; (*o*) hand-drill; (*p*) iron-planer; (*r*) shaper; (*s*) speed lathes; (*t*) engine lathes; (*u*) vice benches.

L, Wash-room.

(*v*) Hot-water tank.

M, Boiler-room.

N, Wood-carving room.

(*w*) Clay-modelling tables; (*x*) carving-tables.

O, Chemical laboratory.

P, Wash-room.

WASHINGTON UNIVERSITY MANUAL TRAINING SCHOOL.

St. Louis, Mo.

[Statement of Director C. M. Woodward.]

ST. LOUIS, MO., *January 28, 1886.*

N. H. R. DAWSON, Esq.,

U. S. Commissioner of Education, Washington, D. C.

DEAR SIR: I have the honor, in compliance with your request, to submit the following brief statement of the organization, course of study, and daily programme of the St. Louis Manual Training School, together with a summary of some of the more obvious results of the training afforded by the school.

The school was organized under the charter of Washington University, and opened in September, 1880; it has consequently been in operation seven and one-half years. It is an academy for general secondary education, though in consequence of its special manual features it was named the Manual Training School. Under the general control of the University board it invites properly qualified pupils from all communities.

A moderate rate of tuition—about \$75 per annum—is charged those who are able to pay. About one-fourth of the pupils are, in consequence of limited means on their part, and through the aid of a generous endowment, placed on the free, or nearly free list.

The Junior, or first-year class, consists of a maximum of ninety-six members. Candidates from the public schools should, in general, have completed the eighth grade, or be prepared for a city high school. Those who present certificates of having completed the district school course in St. Louis are accepted without examination. No boy whose age is less than fourteen years is examined.

The written examination comprises arithmetic, through interest; geography, including map-drawing from memory; English composition, including spelling and the correction of false syntax. * * * In the examination no account is taken of mechanical tastes or technical skill. It is not till the students have been fairly trained on all sides that their tastes and preferences are worthy of much consideration.

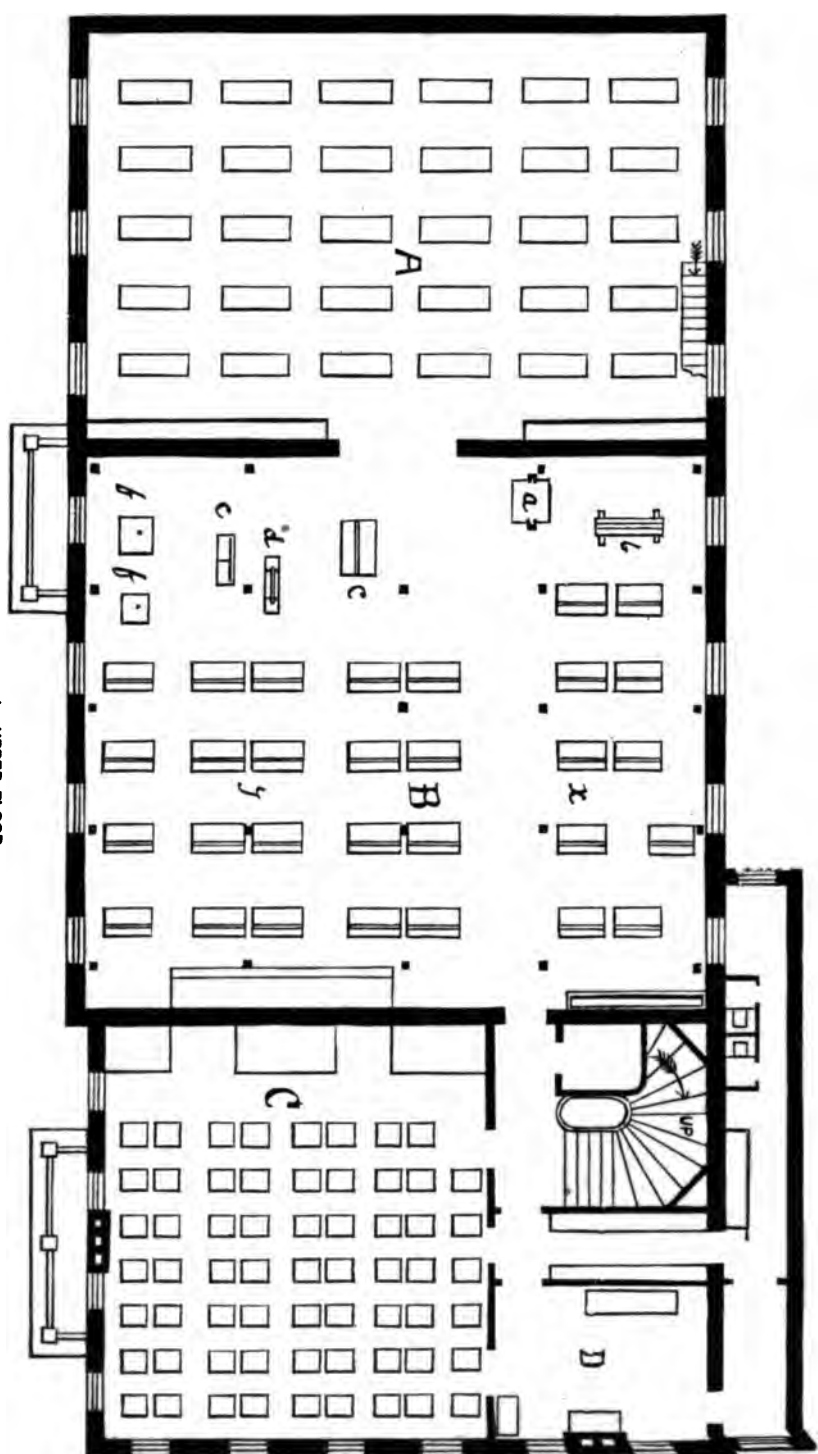
THE COURSE OF STUDY

extends through three years. Except in the literary work no choice of subjects is allowed. All must be taken in regular order as laid down below:

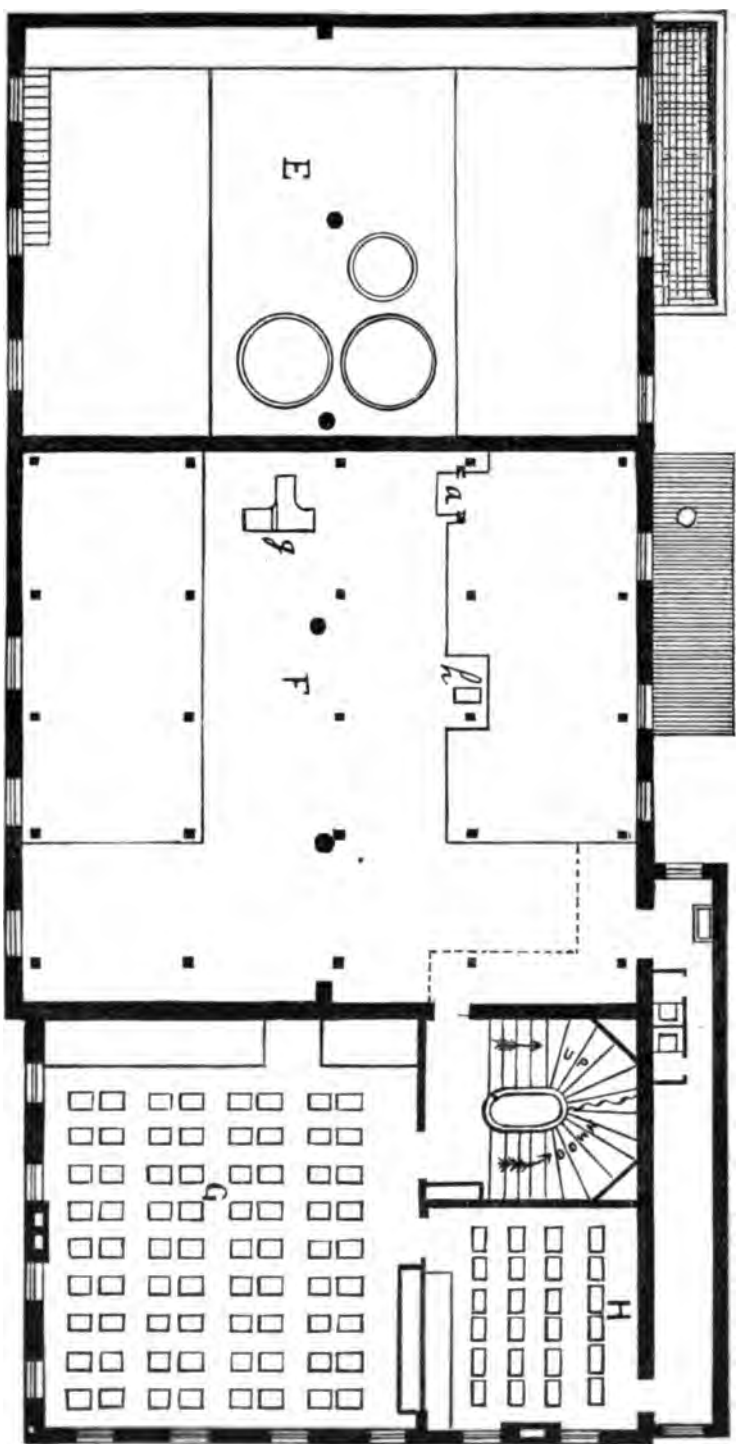
First year.

Arithmetic completed; algebra to equations.

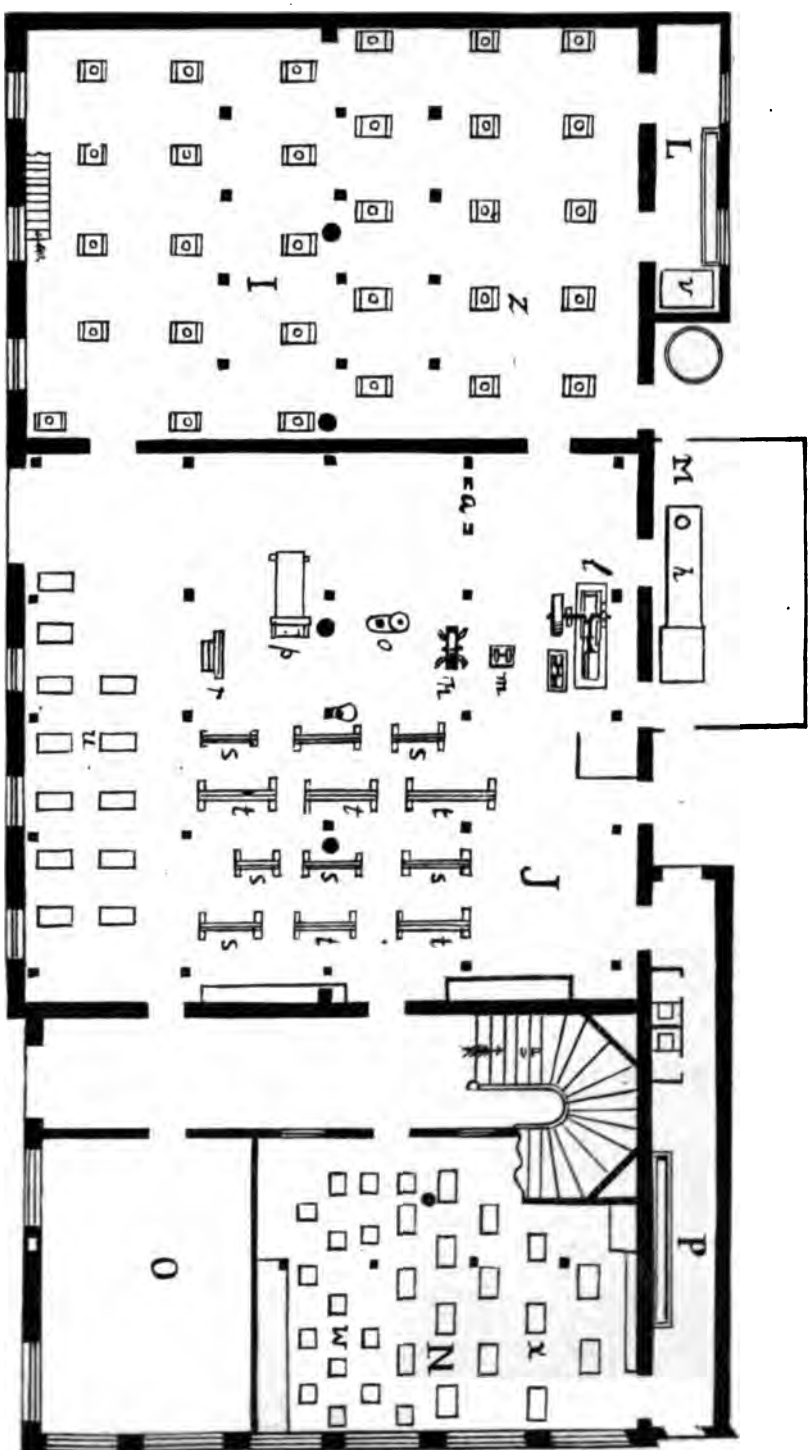
English language, its structure and use; study of selected pieces; history of the *United States*.



1.—UPPER FLOOR.



II.—MIDDLE FLOOR.



III.—GROUND PLAN.

Latin grammar and reader may be taken in place of English.

All students have English composition once a week.

Huxley's Introduction to Science; physical geography; botany.

Drawing, mechanical and free-hand; penmanship.

Carpentry and joinery; wood-carving; wood-turning.

Second year.

Algebra through quadratics; geometry begun.

Natural philosophy; experimental work in the physical laboratory.

English composition and literature; rhetoric; English history.

Latin (Cæsar) may be taken in place of English and history.

Drawing: Line shading and tinting, machines; development of surfaces, free-hand detail drawing, isometric projections.

Forging: Drawing, upsetting, bending, punching, welding, tempering; pattern-making, moulding, soldering.

Third year.

Geometry, plane and solid; mensuration.

English composition and literature; history; elementary political economy, and civics; graduating essay.

French may be taken in place of English and history, or in place of science study.

Physiology; elements of chemistry. Students who have taken Latin, and who intend to enter the polytechnic school after completing the course in this school, take history and rhetoric in place of physiology and chemistry.

Book-keeping.

Drawing: Brush-shading, shadows, geometrical and architectural. An elaborate finished drawing closes the course.

Work in the machine-shop: Bench work and fitting, turning, drilling, planing, screw-cutting, etc. The making of a project.

THE CORPS OF TEACHERS.

For the proper instruction and training of the students the director is furnished with a corps of twelve accomplished teachers, of whom four are exclusively engaged in tool instruction and the methods of workmanship; two give instruction in drawing and penmanship; and six teach mathematics, science, and literature, as in an ordinary high school.

THE DAILY PROGRAMME.

In the school two hours per day are given to shop-work, four hours to recitation, drawing, and study. The school opens in the morning at 9 o'clock, and closes in the afternoon at 3.30. Two or three hours of home study are required daily.

The school furnishes shop tools and materials.

Trades are not taught. The tool instruction is broad and universal in character. The aim of the school is not to make mechanics, but men of intelligence, handiness, and judgment. The products of class exercises in the shop have no commercial value.

THE MANUAL OUTFIT.

The capacity of the school for manual work is indicated by its apparatus, as follows:

48 drawing stands.

48 wood-working benches and 96 sets of hand edge-tools.

49 wood lathes and 96 sets of turning tools.

22 forges, anvils, and sets of tools.

17 engine lathes, fully equipped.

5 speed lathes for metal work.

1 large and 1 small planer.

1 shaper, or "jumper."

1 large and 1 small power drill.

A good supply of benches, vices, hand-tools, etc., for the fitting shop.

The power is furnished by a 50 horse-power engine.

THE RECORD OF GRADUATES.

The number of students attending the school last year was 230. The number who were graduated, receiving the diploma of the school, in June last was 52. Of these at least 18 have entered either this University or elsewhere as Freshmen; a majority of these advanced students will become engineers, architects, or teachers. The school thus proves to be a most successful preparatory school for higher education. Those who have gone to work have scattered into a great variety of occupations, the greater number finding opportunity to profit by their knowledge of tool work and workmanship. The tendency towards responsible and lucrative positions is highly marked. The following list of occupations includes all the graduates of the first three classes, 1883, 1884, and 1885:

Students of engineering, law, or medicine.....	20
Clerks.....	22
Teachers.....	10
Draughtsmen or architects.....	10
Machinists.....	6
Artisans: Pattern-maker, bricklayer, shoemaker with power machine, moulder, electrician.....	5
Farmers or ranchmen.....	4
Business men.....	6
Foremen or superintendents.....	4
Ticket agent.....	1
Engineers, mechanical, civil, or mining.....	7
Manufacturers.....	6
Total.....	98

Over a year ago the average monthly wages of those in the above list who were earning regular wages was about \$74. Their average age at that time was twenty years.

In the higher classes of the University I am daily brought in contact with graduates of the Manual Training School, and I have abundant opportunity to observe their mental and moral characteristics. My observation confirms the unanimous verdict of my fellow professors, to the effect that manual training is almost indispensable as a preparation for higher scientific or professional training. It gives great power of close examination and logical analysis. It encourages habits of precision and system in planning and executing tasks. It makes many things possible in the laboratory and class-room which would otherwise be almost out of the question. When a student turns to his draughting instruments and to the bench, lathe, or anvil as naturally and with as much confidence as to his table of logarithms or his dictionary, he occupies a vantage ground which his fellows are quick to recognize.

As to the ability of our graduates to step to the front in the line of practical mechanics, I take the liberty of quoting from the letter of the general foreman of a large system of railway shops, sent in answer to an inquiry as to the outcome of manual training.

As an employer, I will say for several of the Manual Training School boys I have working for me, that they will in one year accomplish as much as the ordinary boy [who has not received the training the Manual Training School gives] will in three. For example, I have two boys working side by side, one from the school, and the other an uneducated boy; the former has been working here nine months, while the latter

has been here over three years, and to-day the boy from school will do better, cleaner, neater, quicker work by far than the other boy. One boy learns the trade by imitation, while the other learns it by reason and study. The boy from the school is more precise and neat about his work, grasps a new idea more readily, looks upon new features of the business with greater intelligence, and is better able to direct others and to bear responsibilities. He has better command of language and can impart to others the ideas he wishes them to obtain. When a difficult point arises, the school boy will labor with it until he conquers it, while the other boy will study a while, then give it up. Were I to need a clerk, apprentice, or draughtsman, I would and do give the Manual Training School boys the preference, because I get much better results with less trouble.

The above letter I quote from my book, *The Manual Training School; its Aims, Methods, and Results* (D. C. Heath & Co. Boston, 1897). Chapters V and VI are devoted to the "Results." I am tempted to add, as a final word, the testimony of a graduate himself (one out of two hundred) and the work he is doing. He says:

The principal part of my work is the making of wood and brass patterns and core-boxes, and keeping them in order; I also do the greater part of the drawing for the shop; but I am by no means limited to these, as, for the last three or four days of each month, I am called to help get work out, and to help Mr. Jones figure, etc. * * *
I usually get the work that is out of the ordinary line.

Your obedient servant,

C. M. WOODWARD.

II.

THE NEED OF EDUCATED LABOR IN THE SOUTH.

AN ADDRESS BY W. H. COUNCIL, PRINCIPAL OF THE ALABAMA STATE NORMAL AND INDUSTRIAL SCHOOL, MONTGOMERY, ALA.

[The following address was delivered at a recent session of the Alabama State Teachers' Association (colored). As a plea for the industrial training of the negro, made by one who is himself of that race, it has been deemed to possess sufficient value to be published in this connection.]

Like the Sphinx, which stands peering down through the mists of ages, caste, founded upon occupation, is becoming a thing of the past, and will soon be found only in the dim and antiquated annals of Egyptian and Oriental aristocracy, monarchy, and oppression. Some of the deleterious atmosphere from this Upas of Orientalism was borne across the seas to mix with our new civilization; but affinity is lacking, and it is being driven out by the beams of our Christianity, which adorns, dignifies, and elevates honest labor. Here the honest toiler, faithfully filling his sphere in life, is a man, the equal of the Chief Magistrate of the nation.

The professions were long erroneously regarded as the ruling positions in industrial society. This place-worship caused manual labor to despise itself. The professions have been sought, also, on account of their supposed ease and affluence, and this mistaken idea has become a stone of stumbling and a rock of offence to countless thousands.

My paper will be confined to the South, because we are more immediately concerned about its welfare; and I hope that I shall not be considered narrow if I limit this necessarily brief discussion to the Negro of the South. We are to deal with him. It is to him that we must go, holding up high the torch of Christianity, education, and industry. In God's name we must bring him into the light of this age of Christian civilization. We are to seek him in the attics and damp cellars of the cities; we are to seek him in the fertile valleys and upon the unyielding hill-sides, and pour into him the elements of true manhood.

The conditions of labor in ante-bellum days had a tendency to create a wrong conception of the responsibility and honor of labor.

It is true that the planter, surrounded by his hundreds of slaves, dictated the policy of Southern institutions, and beside this planter professional gentlemen were social and financial pigmies. The planter was simply a nominal agriculturist. He did not even come in contact with his slaves. His children did not labor. The management of his affairs was generally committed to the charge of men who were regarded to be of humble birth and station in society. The negro performed all the work, until finally nearly all Southern whites came to regard labor as the natural inheritance of the negro, and they willingly conceded his right to monopolize it.

Black man was only another word for workman, and this idea, coupled with that of slavery, brought manual labor—in fact, labor of every kind—into great dishonor.

It was a natural sequence of this condition that the negro should regard labor and slavery connected by the unholy bonds of thralldom, and ease and leisure and unearned comfort as the concomitants of their divorcement, or the invariably necessary

attendants of emancipation. His ideal freeman was one of leisure, a man who could dress well, who stood idly around public places and discussed current events. For this reason 1870 found an unnaturally large percentage of the race engaged in politics, the ministry, and other supposed easy vocations. Those who are acquainted with the history of those times know these to be stubborn and stern facts, although painful to us.

But notwithstanding this unreliable and unsettled state of labor, there were certain influences which held the negro in the labor market, and which to-day give to him the control of a large part of that market in the South, and I hope he may keep this control forever.

As leaders of the race, as moulders of race character, as guardians of the interests of our people, we must strive to prepare them to maintain their present vantage ground in the labor market of the South. We want places for our boot-blacks, barbers, porters, cooks, washerwomen, chambermaids, carpenters, masons, blacksmiths, farm hands, manual laborers, and domestics of every kind.

If we succeed in procuring and securing these for and to our people, the few ministers, lawyers, teachers, doctors, and journalists will care for themselves.

The negro population of Alabama is 600,102. Of this number 39½ per cent., or 237,000, are bread winners. Ninety-nine per cent. of these bread winners are engaged in agriculture, personal and domestic service, including a small but increasing per cent. in mining and manufacturing. It is thus clearly seen that not exceeding 1 per cent. of our race in this State is engaged in professional pursuits. What is true of Alabama is true of the whole South.

Our few professional laborers must realize the fact that they are dependent upon the 99-per cent. for support, and not the 99 per cent. upon them. But there is somewhat mutual dependence. The Brooklyn bridge, that mighty consummation of genius and architectural skill, has only a few massive pillars and great iron cables. These do not make the bridge. But there are hundreds of bolts, bars, screws, nuts, and nails, without which there would be no Brooklyn bridge to challenge the admiration of the mechanical world.

As I have above intimated, the conditions of labor in the South have produced abnormality in both servant and master classes—employer and employé. But with the new life coming into the New South, superior labor, and greater excellence and competency will be demanded. In every walk in life more skill and reliability will be required. Purely business principles are becoming the woof of our industrial warp. The abnormal standard of labor accomplishments is the outgrowth of ante-bellum institutions, and has been sustained by the frailest of props, sentimentalism. Those institutions being changed by the new conditions and relations of master and servant, the laborer of the future must stand or fall on his own merits.

Right here in the South a new element of competition is seeking to enter the labor market, formerly monopolized by the negro. The daughters of the ex-masters are learning to do work which formerly was performed only by the slaves. The sons are becoming expert in many things which, fifty years ago, were left exclusively to the negro. In fact, day by day shows that the negro is no longer conceded to be the sole and rightful ruler of the labor market. His heretofore undisputed right of inheritance is being sharply contested by Southern white boys and girls in every avenue which produces bread and leads to wealth. Besides this competition, there are a quarter of a million of able-bodied white men and women, common laborers and domestics, in the State of New York alone, who would be glad to seek occupations in Alabama if negro labor were not preferable. As I have said before, this preference for negro labor, at present, has its most powerful support in sentimentality, and the influx of Northern people introducing Northern white servants may lead to the displacement of the negro in such a measure as to drive him from many occupations which now supply his food and raiment.

Here is food for serious reflection on the part of those to whom God has given this important work of elevating the negro race in the South.

What shall we do to keep the negro laborer in the market?

We must educate him in the fundamental principles of a common school course; develop his consciousness of truth and justice implanted in every human heart by the Almighty, and give him that industrial training which will make him such a factor in our industrial mathematics that he can not be thrown out without serious detriment to the labor problem of the South. This education, development, and training should proceed, from the earliest intellectual susceptibility, conjointly and systematically. In regard to the period of commencement of the training of a child, Oliver Wendell Holmes says it should begin a hundred years before the child is born. Dr. Josiah Strong says: "If a community produces or fails to produce good citizens and able men, the records of the founders will rarely fail to afford an explanation, for the influence of the early settlers continues operative until their descendants are displaced by some other stock." As a body set in motion continues, unless acted upon by external influences, to move, so character and principle, good or bad, in a people move on from generation to generation, until a new race comes upon the stage, or external forces check the old motion and inaugurate reform. This external influence and reform is the need of the labor element of the South to-day, in view of the conditions and relations herein above mentioned.

The character of education necessary to check these baneful influences and set in operation new and healthful energies is no hard question for us to determine, if we can thrust aside the delusions and surmount the prejudices of centuries that have favored university and college education.

I do not undervalue the benefits of higher education to the world and science. But it is not only not a necessary ingredient in popular education, but it would prove a dangerous element under present methods. It always has been, and from its very nature and utility, always will be, confined to a puny minority of mankind.

The negro has poorly developed powers of discriminative judgment, and it is but natural that all should want their children taught branches of study without any reference to the future occupations of those children, often insisting that the classics be included in the curriculum. And strangely enough, many of our teachers are too willing to encourage this nonsensical worship of learning for learning's sake. We ought not to regard learning as an end, but as means to an end. The end of all knowledge should be the useful and the good.

In a healthful state of economy demand precedes supply. I fear that this principle is not observed by our universities and colleges. I greatly fear that we are throwing into the community many young people educated beyond the ability of effective assimilation with the balance of the race, and, must I say it?—educated beyond their legitimate sphere according to the demands of the age and the requirements of the race. Education in the hands of an evenly and roundly developed constitution, expanded in the line of truth and industry, is what a new sharp hatchet is in the hands of a good boy. It is an instrument to repair and build. But education under other conditions is as the hatchet is in the hands of a bad boy, a vicious boy—an instrument of destruction and mischief, by which the little criminal cuts and hacks his way into the prison and down to perdition. Industrious, virtuous ignorance is preferable to idle, vicious intelligence. Industrial training is as necessary to the education of an individual as oxygen is to the composition of common air.

We need not only the theory, but practical industry taught in all of our common schools. We must instill into the minds of the youth that "Labor is one of God's greatest gifts to man;" that labor has led man from the lowest grades of fetichism up to the true God. We want housekeeping taught as well as grammar. We need a cook-book in the hands of our girls as well as a geography, the mechanical arts as well as history. The battles of Thermopylae, Marathon, Carthage, Babylon, and Waterloo, in which only a few millions were engaged and only a few hundreds of thousands

were left dead and dying upon the field, are not to be compared with the battle being fought to-day for bread by one and a half billions of souls, and where ignorance and wrong leave millions of dead and dying upon the field.

One Cuvier is sufficient to arrange the present animal life into tribes, and marshal into beautiful and symmetrical rationality the fossiliferous and fragmentary remains of ancient and extinct generations. But the nation needs one half of a million of persons to handle the animals required in our market.

One Linnæus is sufficient to discover the sexuality of plant life and give to vegetation a phytological classification. But seven millions of beings are needed to cultivate the plants necessary to supply our nation with food and raiment.

We need comparatively few young men who can grapple physico-theology and metaphysical sciences; young men who can take the wings of thought and imagination and sound the depths of the universe, measure the breadth of creation, and plow through the deep, sublime, serene ocean of limitless thought; who can grasp the flying clouds of erudition, and from them forge shafts of intellectual electricity to hurl from the mortars of logic, carrying admiration or consternation, reformation or revolution, into the ranks of mankind. But the plodding millions move on as they have moved since the human family set out on its plodding march through time, and the plodding millions will continue to be plodding millions until matter shall, at the command of God, creep back into the womb of nothingness. What most concerns these millions is the getting of bread—the struggle to occupy middle ground. We must teach them a way of getting a living, and of living. We can not hope to move the mass at once, but individual training will be found to be the lever by which the mass may be raised. Guizot says, "The prime element in modern European civilization is the energy of individual life, the force of personal existence."

A learned man has laid down the following educational platform, which I adopt:

"In order to the common weal there are, in general, four things that an adult man or woman ought to know; four things, therefore, that the State ought to see that its children have a fair opportunity to learn, namely, to think, to work, to behave, and to love their country."

Does any one doubt that is the correct principle of common school education? Will any one assert that this is the principle adopted and operated in our common schools? We have been giving our young people a certain class of learning at the expense of the hand and heart, and we have succeeded in throwing into the body politic the germs of agnosticism, idleness, and socialism.

Truth is a cardinal virtue, and should be the foundation of every human pursuit and institution. We all are painfully familiar with the appalling lack of this virtue among the laborers of to-day. Nine-tenths of our workingmen never stop to think of the importance of faithfully keeping an obligation to begin work at a certain time, or finish it in a certain style, or complete it at a given hour. How often have our blacksmith, carpenter, and shoemaker disappointed us? Now, we seldom expect to find our roof patched according to agreement. We never expect the work to be begun until several days past the appointed time. This lack of truth, and the absence of a feeling of high responsibility on the part of the laborer, are a source of great annoyance and many losses. These things can not be overcome except by trained labor, guided by ethical rules.

There are two hundred and sixty-five occupations followed by the citizens of the United States. Only ninety-eight are plied in Alabama and most of the other Southern States. With the development of the varied natural resources of the State a very large percentage of the other occupations must be introduced, as well as the present ones improved. To meet these changes on a high ethical and skilled basis, labor must be trained by a wise method of common school instruction vigorously prosecuted.

The South is being transformed almost magically from the state of desolation in which slavery and the War of the Rebellion left it, to the most active industrial theatre of the world. On account of the advanced state of the civilization coming

into the South, our labor can not be developed by the old methods. This new wine of industrial fermentation will not be safe in the old labor bottles, any more than the skin bottles of the first century would subserve our chemical experiments of to-day.

If the laborer could have climbed up, step by step, through the centuries with this high civilization, he might have developed by the old processes. But this civilization has burst upon the South like a flood of golden light from the great sun, without premonitory dawn and mellow beams, the forerunners of the king of day, and the South has become one vast workshop in a single generation. Will any sane man say that our future laborer will be prepared to join this industrial procession without industrial training? The decision of experience, the judgment of time, dictate the wisdom of the popular drift in enlightened countries to industrial education. It is said that every member of the imperial family of the German empire must learn a trade.

When a boy leaves any one of our common schools he should go as well prepared to enter the battle of life, on biological principles, as the cadet who passes muster at West Point or Annapolis is to defend his country from invasion or to punish a disregard of its flag wherever its citizens tread the globe.

We need, most of all, educated labor to prevent crime. The old adage that an idle mind is the devil's workshop is as true as the philosophical axiom that all bodies are in space. I heartily agree with the writer who said, "Industrial ignorance is the mother of idleness, the grandmother of destitution, and the great-grandmother of socialism and nihilistic discontent." If the metaphysical triplicity of man is doubted by any, all will readily concede his trinity as to brains, hands, and legs. These, according to a necessary and universal law of our nature, must be constantly employed, and they produce good or ill according as they are engaged.

The State which fails to educate its children bequeaths to posterity paupers; the State which fails to give industrial training to its youth transmits to posterity paupers and criminals.

Statistics show that a lack of industrial education produces more criminals than a want of religious, ethical, and intellectual culture.

Astounding as this statement may appear, the fact is even more amazing.

Let us examine the records of the State of Illinois for a given year on this point. That State may be taken as a fair representative of the others. The number of convicts in the Joliet penitentiary was 1,492. Of this number only 151 were illiterate; 127 could read but not write; 1,087 had a fair education; and 129 were graduates of colleges or universities. Therefore 90 per cent. were educated, as the word goes, so that their crimes could not be due to the lack of intellectual training. Also 91 per cent. had been Sunday-school scholars, and 18 per cent. temperance men. Evidently they did not lack religious and ethical instruction. But 77 per cent. had no trades or regular occupations, 16 per cent. simply "picked up" trades, and only 7 per cent. had been systematically taught some trade.

Here is the root of the evil. Here is the foundation of crime. Here is the fruitful source of supply of the inmates of our prisons and almshouses. Here is an appeal to legislators and others having control of the organizing and conducting of our systems of education. Here is an appeal, loud and clear, to parent, teacher, patriot, philanthropist, all, to awake and check this mighty rush of our children to the prisons, and from them to hell.

The fact that nearly 20 per cent. of the inhabitants of the State of Illinois are foreign born, does not favorably alter the case in the least; rather would it tend to aggravate the matter. An analysis of the foreign-born population of Illinois shows that nearly 50 per cent. are from the German empire, with its justly boasted common school system.

The fact that Illinois has very destructive labor troubles is certainly significant. The germs of anarchy, socialism, and nihilism are found in industrial ignorance. The failure of the South to nip these evils in the bud by a liberal and wise system of com-

mon schools will produce a race of communistic Broddingnags, who will defy law and stamp order and the sacred rights of person and property under their colossal feet.

The South has ample premonition. The warning notes from France, England, and Russia are borne across the sea. In our own country some of the older States, writhing and bleeding in the clutches of those evil monsters, admonish the new South to build her new institutions upon the sure foundation of industrial intelligence. Will the South heed now? Fools are taught by experience only, but wise men by the experience of fools.

Chicago (Ill.) pays \$18.93 per year for each pupil attending its public schools. This same city pays \$33 for each arrest of criminals, but up to the time of the collation of these statistics not one cent had been spent in industrial education. The city of London, England, expends annually \$385,000 for industrial schools. London had one arrest to every forty-eight of its population, while Chicago had one to every fifteen.

Must I uncover prostitution, and show that it prevails most in the ranks of the industrially ignorant? Must I spread before you the statistics showing that 95 per cent. of illegitimate births are found among mothers wanting industrial training?

These are startling facts, but are in accord with the economy of nature. Does not the remedy suggest itself to every thinking mind?

The laborer should be educated—should be trained, in order to protect his own life and health, to relieve him of many burdens which accompany inexperience and ignorance, and to enable him to carry law and system into his life and work.

"How beautiful and glorious to thought is law! Law governs the sun, the planets, and the stars. Law covers the earth with beauty and fills it with bounty. Law directs the light and moves the wings of the atmosphere, binds the great forces of the universe in harmony and order, awakens the melody of creation, quickens every sensation of delight, moulds every form of life. Law governs atoms and governs systems. Law governs matter and governs thought. Law springs from the mind of God."

This system, this order, this law, this beautiful harmony, must be carried into the life of the laborer to insure competency, to guarantee reciprocity, and to sweeten toil. This must be done in the school, the training school, the industrial school.

What would you think of a man unacquainted with machinery assuming the conduct of a large mill, or moving carelessly among its wheels, bands, and shafts? Would you not expect each moment to see his body taken up by some swiftly-moving machinery and dashed again to the ground a lifeless and mangled corpse? And do you expect a man totally ignorant of the great and wonderful laws and systems and workings of nature to move unharmed among her machinery or enter her laboratory in safety?

Carpentering, blacksmithing, shoemaking, cooking, washing, fire-making, scrubbing, farming, and gardening are all governed by positive and immutable laws. They are as much science as mathematics, grammar, or natural philosophy, and should be taught with the same care that is bestowed upon these more favored branches.

There is science and art in fire-making. Has not our breakfast often been delayed and the whole day's plans disarranged because there was ignorance of the philosophy of fire-making? Has not our food often been brought to the table so completely divested of its native zest and sweetness that the most rapacious appetite and epicurean stomach would at once declare themselves in rebellion against the table? How many thousands go annually to premature graves by this system of cookery the great God alone knows.

Some poor victim of untrained cooks has said, "God sends the victuals, but the devil sends the cooks;" and Owen Meredith, in *Lucile*, exalts cooking thus:

We may live without music, poetry, and art,
We may live without conscience, we may live without heart,
We may live without friends, we may live without books,
But civilized man can not live without cooks.

Who does not detest the work of a "jack-leg" mechanic? He would starve were it not for his cheapness, which is indulged by popular ignorance and stupidity.

A recent writer estimates that more people die of the want of properly ventilated homes than of any other cause. Here the science and art of house-keeping has not been taught. It is true that the death rate from this cause is two and a half times greater among the manual laboring people than any other class of our population.

Should a girl be sent from the school-room to take charge of a home—to rear children—who does not thoroughly understand the science and art of a thousand little but important things connected with her life-work, upon which her happiness and the comfort of others, here and hereafter, depend? Would not a knowledge of these things be of more benefit than at least half of the geography, grammar, geometry, and metaphysical speculation crammed into the mind at the expense of the methods of obtaining a livelihood?

It is more important for the present generation to understand the uses of the various hand tools, how to build houses, and how to live in them, than to write better Greek than Homer, better Latin than Cicero, or recite the transactions of antiquity in a more charming style than Xenophon or Herodotus or Cæsar.

From across the great ocean—from Rome—the cheering news comes: "His Holiness dealt with the industrial question, speaking unfavorably of state socialism, but insisting that governments should make the material interests of the working class of the population their care." And thus the cause of the toiling millions gains strength wherever thought is led out by Christianity. Let us throw ourselves abreast of these advanced thinkers, and endeavor to move the press, the church, and the powers of state in behalf of the cause of industrial education, and move the laborer to properly appreciate the dignity and responsibility of his calling.



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THE UNITED STATES
BUREAU OF EDUCATION.

CREATED AS A DEPARTMENT MARCH 2, 1867. MADE AN OFFICE OF
THE INTERIOR DEPARTMENT JULY 1, 1869.

COMMISSIONERS:

HENRY BARNARD, *March 14, 1867, to March 15, 1870.*

JOHN EATON, *March 16, 1870, to August 5, 1886.*

NATHANIEL H. R. DAWSON, *August 6, 1886, to date.*

PURPOSE.

[United States Revised Statutes.]

SEC. 516. There shall be in the Department of the Interior a Bureau called the Office of Education, the purpose and duties of which shall be to collect statistics and facts showing the condition and progress of education in the several States and Territories, and to diffuse such information respecting the organization and management of schools and school systems, and methods of teaching, as shall aid the people of the United States in the establishment and maintenance of efficient school systems, and otherwise promote the cause of education throughout the country.

SEC. 517. The management of the Office of Education shall, subject to the direction of the Secretary of the Interior, be intrusted to a Commissioner of Education, who shall be appointed by the President, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, and shall be entitled to a salary of three thousand dollars a year.

SEC. 518. The Commissioner of Education shall present annually to Congress a report embodying the results of his investigations and labors, together with a statement of such facts and recommendations as will, in his judgment, subserve the purpose for which the Office is established.

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BRIEF HISTORY.

The Bureau of Education was originally established as an independent Department by act of Congress, approved by President Johnson on March 2, 1867. The bill had been introduced into the House of Representatives the previous year by General Garfield, accompanied with a memorial signed in behalf of the Department of Superintendence of the National Educational Association, by E. E. White, Newton Bateman, and J. S. Adams, which strongly urged the creation of such a governmental agency.

By an act of Congress which took effect July 1, 1869, the Department of Education was changed to an Office, or Bureau, in the Interior Department.

The appropriations for 1869-70 were seriously reduced, but those for the next year were larger, and permitted the preparation of documents which convinced the Congress of the permanent utility of the Bureau in promoting the cause of education, and from that time it has steadily grown as the amount of labor demanded of it has increased.

The Bureau has for the last sixteen years, excepting one year of disastrous removal, occupied its present quarters, a four-story and basement brick building, containing twenty-eight rooms, situated on the north-east corner of Eighth and G Streets, opposite the main building of the Interior Department.

ORGANIZATION.

The working force of the Bureau, consisting of thirty-eight persons, is divided into three Divisions: (1) that of Records; (2) that of Statistics; (3) that of the Library and Museum.

(1) *The Division of Records and Correspondence* consists of five clerks, under the direction of the chief clerk. Its duties are to write the routine letters, address the slips for mailing documents, and number, file, and index all letters received and letters sent. To it are also attached the laborers who wrap, pack, and mail the documents.

The correspondence of the Bureau has grown from a small beginning to direct communication with all the nations of the world which have departments of education or higher institutions of learning. The domestic correspondence includes the heads of all State and Territorial school systems, the larger cities, and all public and private institutions of learning that are known to be in operation, or have shown sufficient interest to send reports to the Bureau. The number of addresses on the lists is over twenty-five thousand.

The education of children in Alaska, without distinction of race, was devolved by act of May 17, 1884, upon the Secretary of the Interior, and has been by him intrusted to the Commissioner of Education. With the aid of a local Board of Education, the Bureau manages twelve day schools in the widely scattered settlements of the distant Territory,

and several boarding industrial schools for Indians have recently been transferred from the Indian Office to the Bureau of Education.

(2) *The Statistical Division* consists of fourteen clerks, under the Statistician. Its duties are the collection and preparation of material for the annual reports, the preparation of statistics for the other publications of the Office and for use in its correspondence, the reading and correction of proof, and other kindred duties.

The Collector and Compiler of Statistics has been engaged for several years, in obedience to a resolution of the Senate, upon an exhaustive report on Art and Industrial Education in the United States, of which Part I has been published.

(3) *The Library and Museum Division* consists of seven clerks, under the Librarian. Its duties are the receiving, listing, and arranging of the volumes, pamphlets, and papers added to the library, and the indexing in the card catalogue of all educational articles in any and every publication placed upon the shelves; and the care and arrangement of the Museum. The library now contains twenty-one thousand bound volumes and seventy-five thousand pamphlets. The subject index extends to one hundred thousand titles, in alphabetical order, on as many separate cards. The Museum contains more than twenty thousand articles and series of articles, catalogued and arranged in thirty large glass cases.

EXHIBITS.

The Bureau has taken part in all the important National Expositions, and in several of a local character, which have been held of late years, and by bringing together for comparison the methods and results of widely different school systems, it has exerted a potent influence upon the educational progress of this and other countries. Its exhibits have received numerous awards and acknowledgments, as follows:

1873. *Universal Exposition, at Vienna*.—Grand Diploma of Honor.

1875. *International Exposition of Chili*.—A Medal of Honor, a First Prize Medal, a Second Prize Medal, with a Diploma of Award.

1876. *International Exhibition, at Philadelphia*.—Certificate of Award.

1878. *Universal Exposition, at Paris*.—Three Diplomas of Gold Medals.

1883. *Southern Exposition, at Louisville*.—Bronze Medal.

1884. *Same*. Bronze Medal, with Certificate of Highest Award.

1885. *World's Industrial and Cotton Centennial Exposition, at New Orleans*.—Four Certificates of Award.

1888. *Centennial Exposition of the Ohio Valley and Central States, at Cincinnati*.

The effort of the Bureau of Education was here confined strictly to setting forth its own organization, methods of doing business, and the results of its labors.

PUBLICATIONS.

The Publications of the Bureau consist of (1) Annual Reports, which set forth statistics and general information concerning the educational systems of the States, Territories, and larger cities, universities, colleges, professional, special, and scientific schools, academies, prepara-

tory schools, and kindergartens, with a summary of the progress of education in foreign countries; (2) Special Reports on subjects pertinent to the times; (3) Circulars of Information on important questions of educational work or history, which are issued in yearly series; (4) occasional bulletins on matters of current educational interest.

Eighteen Annual Reports have been issued, and another (for the year 1887-88) is in course of preparation.

Eight Special Reports have been issued.

Eighty Circulars of Information have been issued, four are in press, and thirty-five in course of preparation.

Thirty eight Bulletins have been issued.

A request for publications from a person unknown to the Bureau, should be indorsed by a Senator or Representative in Congress, or a State, county, or city superintendent of schools.

Summary of publications issued.

	Copies.
Annual Reports (18).....	197,800
Special Reports (8).....	48,600
Circulars (84).....	1,417,500
Bulletins (38).....	723,100
Grand aggregate of copies.....	2,392,000

LIST OF PUBLICATIONS TO MARCH 1 1889.

I.—ANNUAL REPORTS.

Report of the Commissioner of Education, 1867-68. *Barnard*. 8^o, pp. xi + 856. Washington, 1868. 300 copies.*

Special Report of the Commissioner of Education on the condition and improvement of public schools in the District of Columbia. *Barnard*. 8^o, pp. 912. Washington, 1871.

Report of the Commissioner of Education for the year 1870. *Eaton*. 8^o, pp. 579. Washington, 1870. 5,000 copies.*

Same for 1871. *Eaton*. 8^o, pp. 715. Washington, 1872. 5,000 copies.

Same for 1872. *Eaton*. 8^o, pp. lxxxviii+1018. Washington, 1873. 5,000 copies.

Same for 1873. *Eaton*. 8^o, pp. clxxviii+870. Washington, 1874. 2,500 copies.

Same for 1874. *Eaton*. 8^o, pp. clii+935. Washington, 1875. 5,000 copies.*

Same for 1875. *Eaton*. 8^o, pp. clxxiii+1016. Washington, 1876. 5,000 copies.*

Same for 1876. *Eaton*. 8^o, pp. ccxiii+942. Washington, 1878. 10,000 copies.*

Same for 1877. *Eaton*. 8^o, pp. ccvi+844. Washington, 1879. 10,000 copies.*

Same for 1878. *Eaton*. 8^o, pp. cci+730. Washington, 1880. 10,000 copies.

Same for 1879. *Eaton*. 8^o, pp. cxxx+777. Washington, 1881. 10,000 copies.

Same for 1880. *Eaton*. 8^o, pp. cclxii+914. Washington, 1882. 15,000 copies.*

Same for 1881. *Eaton*. 8^o, pp. cclxxvii+840. Washington, 1883. 15,000 copies.*

Same for 1882-83. *Eaton*. 8^o, pp. ccxviii+872. Washington, 1884. 20,000 copies.

Same for 1883-84. *Eaton*. 8^o, pp. cclxxi+943. Washington, 1885. 20,000 copies.*

Same for 1884-85. *Eaton-Dawson*. 8^o, pp. cccxvii+848. Washington, 1886. 20,000 copies.

Same for 1885-86. *Dawson*. 8^o, pp. xxi+792. Washington, 1887. 20,000 copies.

Same for 1886-87. *Dawson*. 8^o, pp. 1170. Washington, 1888. 20,000 copies.

Same for 1887-88. *Dawson*. 8^o, pp. . Washington, 1888. 20,000 copies. *In press.*

* Supply exhausted

II.—CIRCULARS OF INFORMATION.

- Circular of Information, August, 1870.** pp. 70.—*Contents:* Illiteracy; derived from census tables of 1860; Educational statistics, translation of article by Dr. A. Ficker; Virchow on school-room diseases; Education of French and Prussian conscripts; School organization, etc. 3,000 copies.*
- Same, July, 1871.** pp. 42.—*Contents:* Public instruction in Sweden and Norway; The "folkehoiskoler" of Denmark. By C. C. Andrews. 3,500 copies.*
- Same, November, 1871.** pp. 14. Methods of school discipline. By Hiram Orcutt. 3,000 copies.*
- Same, December, 1871.** pp. 17. Compulsory education. By L. Van Bokkelen. 3,000 copies.
- Same, January, 1872.** pp. 43. German and other foreign universities. By Herman Jacobson. 3,000 copies.
- Same, February, 1872.** pp. 77.—*Contents:* Public instruction in Greece, the Argentine Republic, Chili, and Ecuador; Statistics respecting Portugal and Japan; Technical education in Italy. By John M. Francis, Geo. John Ryan, F. M. Tanaka. 3,000 copies.*
- Same, March, 1872.** pp. 93.—*Contents:* Vital statistics of college graduates; Distribution of college students in 1870-71; Vital statistics in the United States, with diagrams. By Charles Warren. 3,000 copies.*
- Same, April, 1872.** pp. 125. Relation of education to labor. By Richard J. Hinton. 3,000 copies.*
- Same, June, 1872.** pp. 22. Education in the British West Indies. By Thomas H. Pearne. 3,000 copies.
- Same, July, 1872.** pp. 62. The kindergarten. By *Baroness Marenholtz-Bulöw*, tr. by Elizabeth P. Peabody. 3,000 copies.*
- Same, November, 1872.** pp. 79. American education at the Vienna Exposition of 1873. 10,000 copies.*
- Same, 1, 1873.** pp. 66. Historical summary and reports on the systems of public instruction in Spain, Bolivia, Uruguay, and Portugal. 5,000 copies.*
- Same, 2, 1873.** pp. 30. Schools in British India. By Joseph Warren. 4,000 copies.
- Same, 3, 1873.** pp. 118. College commencements for the summer of 1873, in Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania. 5,000 copies.*
- Same, 4, 1873.** pp. 72. List of publications by members of certain college faculties and learned societies in the United States, 1867-72. 5,000 copies.
- Same, 5, 1873.** pp. 155. College commencements during 1873 in the Western and Southern States. 6,000 copies.
- Same, 1, 1874.** pp. 77. Proceedings of the Department of Superintendence of the National Educational Association, Washington, D. C. [1874]. 10,000 copies.*
- Same, 2, 1874.** pp. 56. Drawing in public schools; present relation of art to education in the United States. By Isaac Edwards Clarke. 6,000 copies.*
- Same, 3, 1874.** pp. 87. History of secondary instruction in Germany. By Herman Jacobson. 6,000 copies.*
- Same, 1, 1875.** pp. 114. Proceedings of the Department of Superintendence of the National Educational Association, Washington, D. C. [1875]. 10,000 copies.*
- Same, 2, 1875.** pp. 64. Education in Japan. By William E. Griffiths. 10,000 copies.
- Same, 3, 1875.** pp. 108. Public instruction in Belgium, Russia, Turkey, Servia, and Egypt. By Emile de Laveleye, M. de Salve, V. E. Dor. 10,000 copies.*
- Same, 4, 1875.** pp. 16. Waste of labor in the work of education. By Paul A. Chadbourne. 10,000 copies.*
- Same, 5, 1875.** pp. 26. Educational exhibit at the International Centennial Exhibition, 1876. 15,000 copies.
- Same, 6, 1875.** pp. 208. Reformatory, charitable, and industrial schools for the young. By Julia A. Holmes and S. A. Martha Canfield. 10,000 copies.*
- Same, 7, 1875.** pp. 130. Constitutional provisions in regard to education in the several States. By Franklin B. Hough. 10,000 copies.*
- Same, 8, 1875.** pp. 15. Schedule for the preparation of students' work for the centennial exhibition. By A. J. Rickoff, J. L. Pickard, James H. Smart (*committee*). 20,000 copies.
- Same, 1, 1877.** pp. 24. Education in China. By William A. P. Marrin. 5,000 copies.*

- Same*, 2, 1877. pp. 77.—*Contents*: Public instruction in Finland, the Netherlands, Denmark, Würtemberg, and Portugal; The University of Leipzig. By Felix Heikel, C. H. Plugge, and J. L. Corning. 5,000 copies.*
- Same*, 1, 1878. pp. 36. Training of teachers in Germany. 5,000 copies.*
- Same*, 2, 1878. pp. 24. Elementary education in London, with address of Sir Charles Reed. 5,000 copies.
- Same*, 1, 1879. pp. 21. Training schools for nurses. By S. A. Martha Canfield. 5,000 copies.*
- Same*, 2, 1879. pp. 192.—*Contents*: Proceedings of the Department of Superintendence of the National Educational Association, 1877 and 1879, Washington, D. C.; Proceedings of the conference of college presidents and delegates, Columbus, Ohio, December, 1877. 10,000 copies.*
- Same*, 3, 1879. pp. 37. Value of common school education to common labor. [Reprinted from Annual Report, 1872.] 25,000 copies.
- Same*, 4, 1879. pp. 49. Training schools of cookery. By S. A. Martha Canfield. 5,000 copies.*
- Same*, 5, 1879. pp. 37. American education as described by the French commission to the international exhibition of 1876. By Ferdinand Buisson and others. 20,000 copies.
- Same*, 1, 1880. pp. 27. College libraries as aids to instruction. By Justin Winsor, and Otis H. Robinson. 15,000 copies.
- Same*, 2, 1880. pp. 112. Proceedings of the Department of Superintendence of the National Educational Association, Washington, D. C., 1880. 15,000 copies.*
- Same*, 3, 1880. pp. 96. Legal rights of children. By S. M. Wilcox. 10,000 copies.*
- Same*, 4, 1880. pp. 106. Rural school architecture. By T. M. Clark. 55,000 copies.
- Same*, 5, 1880. pp. 26. English rural schools. By Henry W. Hubbard. 5,000 copies.
- Same*, 6, 1880. pp. 219. Instruction in chemistry and physics in the United States. By F. W. Clarke. 15,000 copies.
- Same*, 7, 1880. pp. 36. The spelling reform. By Francis A. March. 15,000 copies.*
- Same*, 1, 1881. pp. 26. Construction of library buildings. By William F. Poole. 15,000 copies.
- Same*, 2, 1881. pp. 22. Relation of education to industry and technical training in American schools. By E. E. White. 15,000 copies.*
- Same*, 3, 1881. pp. 79. Proceedings of the Department of Superintendence of the National Educational Association, New York, 1881. 15,000 copies.
- Same*, 4, 1881. pp. 144. Education in France. 15,000 copies.*
- Same*, 5, 1881. pp. 47. Causes of deafness among school children and the instruction of children with impaired hearing. By Samuel Sexton. 55,000 copies.*
- Same*, 6, 1881. pp. 29. Effects of student life on the eye-sight. By A. W. Calhoun. 15,000 copies.*
- Same*, 1, 1882. pp. 28. Preception, organization, and management of training schools for nurses. 15,000 copies.*
- Same*, 2, 1882. pp. 112. Proceedings of the Department of Superintendence of the National Educational Association, Washington, 1882. 50,000 copies.
- Same*, 3, 1882. pp. 67. University of Bonn. By Edmond Dreyfus-Brisac. 15,000 copies.*
- Same*, 4, 1882. pp. 37. Industrial art in schools. By Charles G. Leland. 65,000 copies.*
- Same*, 5, 1882. pp. 14. Maternal schools in France. 15,000 copies.*
- Same*, 6, 1882. pp. 63. Technical instruction in France. 15,000 copies.*
- Same*, 1, 1883. pp. 46. Legal provisions respecting the examination and licensing of teachers. 20,000 copies.*
- Same*, 2, 1883. pp. 39. Coordination of the sexes in the public schools of the United States. 55,000 copies.
- Same*, 3, 1883. pp. 81. Proceedings of the Department of Superintendence of the National Educational Association, Washington, D. C., 1883. 25,000 copies.*
- Same*, 4, 1883. pp. 82. Recent school-law decisions. By Lyndell A. Smith. 20,000 copies.*
- Same*, 1, 1884. pp. 11. Meeting of the International Prison Congress at Rome. 25,000 copies.*

- Same*, 2, 1884. pp. 184. The teaching, practice, and literature of short hand. [Second and enlarged edition.] By Julius E. Rockwell. 30,000 copies.
- Same*, 3, 1884. pp. 99. Illiteracy in the United States. With appendix on national aid to education. By Charles Warren and J. L. M. Curry. 20,000 copies.*
- Same*, 4, 1884. pp. 176. Proceedings of the Department of Superintendence of the National Educational Association, Washington, D. C., 1884. 40,000 copies.*
- Same*, 5, 1884. pp. 28. Suggestions respecting the educational exhibit at the New Orleans Exposition, 1884-85. 30,000 copies.
- Same*, 6, 1884. pp. 90. Rural schools: progress in the past; means of improvement in the future. By Annie Tolman Smith. 45,000 copies.*
- Same*, 7, 1884. pp. 158. Aims and methods of the teaching of physics. By Charles K. Wead. 20,000 copies.*
- Same*, 1, 1885. pp. 207. City school systems in the United States. By John D. Philbrick. 40,000 copies.
- Same*, 2, 1885. pp. 206. Teachers' institutes. By James H. Smart. 20,000 copies.*
- Same*, 3, 1885. pp. 55. Review of the reports of the British royal commissioners on technical instruction, with notes. By Charles O. Thompson. 25,000 copies.
- Same*, 4, 1885. pp. 56. Education in Japan. 20,000 copies.*
- Same*, 5, 1885. pp. 183. Physical training in American colleges and universities. By Edward Mussey Hartwell. 20,000 copies.*
- Same*, 1, 1886. pp. 78. Study of music in public schools. By Charles Warren. 25,000 copies.*
- Same*, 2, 1886. pp. 91. Proceedings of the Department of Superintendence of the National Educational Association, Washington, D. C., 1886. 25,000 copies.
- Same*, 1, 1887. pp. 89. The College of William and Mary. By Herbert B. Adams. 25,000 copies.
- Same*, 2, 1887. pp. 299. Study of history in American colleges and universities. By Herbert B. Adams. 25,000 copies.
- Same*, 3, 1887. pp. 200. Proceedings of the Department of Superintendence of the National Educational Association, Washington, D. C., 1887. 20,000 copies.
- Same*, 1, 1888. pp. 308. Thomas Jefferson and the University of Virginia. By Herbert B. Adams. 20,000 copies.
- Same*, 2, 1888. pp. 180. History of education in North Carolina. By Charles Lee Smith. 20,000 copies.
- Same*, 3, 1888. History of higher education in South Carolina. By C. Meriwether. 20,000 copies. *In press.*
- Same*, 4, 1888. Education in Georgia. By Charles Edgeworth Jones. 25,000 copies.
- Same*, 5, 1888. pp. 86. Industrial education in the South. By A. D. Mayo. 25,000 copies. *In press.*
- Same*, 6, 1888. pp. 165. Proceedings of the Department of Superintendence of the National Educational Association, Washington, D. C., 1888. 25,000 copies.
- Same*, 7, 1888. History of education in Florida. By George Gary Bush. 25,000 copies. *In press.*

III.—MISCELLANEOUS PUBLICATIONS.

- Report on school architecture, and plans for graded schools. pp. 136. [Reprinted from Annual Report, 1868.]
- Suggestions for a free school policy for United States land grantees. pp. 6. 1872. 500 copies.*
- Statement of the theory of education in the United States, approved by many leading educators. pp. 22. 1874. 10,000 copies.*
- National Bureau of Education: its history, work, and limitations. pp. 16. 1875. By Alexander Shiras. 15,000 copies.
- Educational conventions and anniversaries, 1876. pp.—. 187—. 500 copies.*
- International conference on education held in Philadelphia, in connection with the international exhibition of 1876. pp. 92. 1877. 3,000 copies.
- List of public school officials in the States and Territories of the United States, 1875. pp. 62. 1875.
- Manual of common native trees of the northern United States. pp. 23. 1877. By George Vasey. 300 copies.*

* Supply exhausted.

- Are the Indians dying out? pp. 36. 1877. By S. N. Clark.
- International educational congress to be held at Brussels, Belgium, August, 1880. pp. 10. 1880. 10,000 copies.
- Indian school at Carlisle barracks. pp. 5. 1880. 10,000 copies.
- Industrial education in Europe. pp. 9. 1880. 15,000 copies.
- Vacation colonies for sickly school children. pp. 4. 1880. 15,000 copies.
- Progress of western education in China and Siam. pp. 13. 1880. 15,000 copies.
- Educational tours in France. pp. 4. 1880. 15,000 copies.
- Medical colleges in the United States. pp. 3. 1881. 500 copies.*
- Comparative statistics of elementary education in fifty principal countries. (Folding sheet.) 1881. 15,000 copies.
- Fifty years of freedom in Belgium; Education in Malta; Third international geographical congress at Venice, 1881: Illiteracy and crime in France; School savings banks; Education in Sheffield. pp. 8. 1881. 15,000 copies.
- Organization and management of public libraries. By William F. Poole. (Reprint from Pub. Libs. in the U. S. A., 1876.) 10,000 copies.
- Library aids. pp. 10. 1881. By Samuel S. Green. 15,000 copies.*
- Recognized medical colleges in the United States. pp. 4. 1881. 1,500 copies.
- Discipline of the school. pp. 15. 1881. [Reprint of Circular of information, November, 1871.] By Hiram Orcutt. 110,000 copies.*
- Education and crime. pp. 10. 1881. By J. P. Wickersham. 15,000 copies.*
- Instruction in morals and civil government. pp. 4. 1882. By A. Vessiot. 60,000 copies.
- Comparative statistics of elementary, secondary, and superior education in sixty principal countries. (Folding sheet.) 1882. 15,000 copies.
- National pedagogic congress of Spain. pp. 4. 1882. 15,000 copies.
- Natural science in secondary schools. pp. 9. 1882. By F. Mühlberg. 65,000 copies.
- High schools for girls in Sweden. pp. 6. 1882. 15,000 copies.*
- Buffalini prize. pp. 5. 1883. 20,000 copies.*
- Education in Italy and Greece. pp. 8. 1883. 20,000 copies.
- Answers to inquiries about the United States Bureau of Education. pp. 29. 1883. By Charles Warren. 40,000 copies.*
- Planting trees in school grounds. pp. 8. 1883. By Franklin B. Hough. 30,000 copies.*
- Southern exposition of 1883-84, Louisville, Ky. (Two pamphlets relating to the exhibit of the United States Bureau of Education.) pp. 17, 1883; pp. 7, 1884. 1,500 copies.
- Preliminary circular respecting the exhibition of education at the World's Industrial and Cotton Centennial Exposition. pp. 11. 1884. 40,500 copies.
- Report of the director of the American School of Classical Studies at Athens, for the year 1882-83. pp. 13. 1884. By William W. Goodwin. 20,000 copies.
- Building for the children of the South. pp. 16. 1884. By A. D. Mayo. 45,000 copies.
- Statistics regarding national aid to education. pp. 3. 1885. 20,000 copies.
- Planting trees in school grounds, and celebration of Arbor Day. pp. 8+64. 1885. By Franklin B. Hough and John B. Peaslee. 45,000 copies.
- International educational congress at Havre. pp. 6. 1885. 20,000 copies.
- Statistics of public libraries in the United States. pp. 98. 1886. Reprinted from Annual Report 1884-85. 10,000 copies.

IV.—SPECIAL REPORTS.

- Technical instruction. Special report, 1879. 8°, pp. 33-784. Washington [1870].
Note. First edition incomplete, printed pursuant to a call of House of Representatives, January 13, 1870. Second edition published as vol. xxi of Barnard's Journal of Education. pp. 807.*
- Contributions to the annals of medical progress and medical education in the United States before and during the War of Independence. By Joseph M. Toner. 8°, pp. 118. Washington, 1874. 2,000 copies.

* Supply exhausted.

- Historical sketch of Mount Holyoke Seminary.** By Mary O. Nutting. Edited by F. B. Hough. 12^o, pp. 24. Washington, 1876.*
- Historical sketch of Union College.** By F. B. Hough. 8^o, pp. 81. Washington, 1876.*
- Public libraries in the United States of America, their history, condition, and management.** Part I. pp. xxxv + 1187. 10,000 copies.* Edited by S. R. Warren and S. N. Clark; Part II. pp. 89. Rules for a printed dictionary catalogue. By C. A. Cutter. 8^o. Washington, 1876. 10,000 copies.*
- Contributions to the history of medical education and medical institutions in the United States of America, 1776-1876.** By N. S. Davis. 8^o, pp. 60. Washington, 1877. 10,000 copies.
- Sketch of the Philadelphia Normal School for Girls.** 8^o, pp. 39. Washington, 1882. 200 copies.
- Historical sketches of the universities and colleges of the United States.**¹ Edited by F. B. Hough. (History of the University of Missouri.) 8^o, pp. 72. Washington, 1883. 6,000 copies.
- Industrial education in the United States.** 8^o, pp. 319. Washington, 1883. 2,500 copies.*
- Art and industry.**—Industrial and high art education in the United States. By I. Edwards Clarke. Part I. Drawing in the public schools. 8^o, pp. cclix + 842. Washington, 1885. 2,250 copies.
- NOTE.**—There were two other editions, with slightly varying titles: one ordered by the Senate, the other by Congress.
- Outlines for a museum of anatomy.** By R. W. Shufeldt. 8^o, pp. 65. Washington, 1885. 3,000 copies.
- Educational exhibits and conventions at the World's Industrial and Cotton Centennial Exposition, New Orleans, 1884-85.** 8^o, pp. 962, foot pagination.² Washington, 1886. 20,000 copies.
- Contents.** Part I. Catalogue of exhibits. pp. 240.
Part II. Proceedings of the International Congress of Educators. pp. 576.
Part III. Proceedings of the Department of Superintendence of the National Educational Association, and addresses delivered on Education Days, 1885, N. O. pp. 148.
- Indian education and civilization.** Prepared in answer to Senate resolution of February 23, 1885. By Alice C. Fletcher, under direction of the Commissioner of Education. pp. 693 [Senate Ex. Doc. No. 95, Forty-eighth Congress, second session.]

ANNOUNCEMENT.

During 1889 will be published (1) a History of education in Wisconsin, by David Spencer and Prof. Wm. F. Allen (*now in press*); (2) a History of mathematical teaching in the United States, by Prof. Florian Cajori (*in press*); (3) a History of Federal and State aid to education, by Frank W. Blackmar (*in press*); (4) Histories of education in Ohio, Michigan, and Illinois, by Prof. Geo. W. Knight (*nearly completed*); (5) History of education in Indiana, by Prof. J. A. Woodburn; (6) the Proceedings of the Department of Superintendence of the National Educational Association, meeting at Washington, March 6, 7, and 8, 1889.

The Bureau has also in course of preparation monographs on the educational history of Maine, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Vermont, Connecticut, Rhode Island, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, District of Columbia, Kentucky, Tennessee, Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana, Texas, Arkansas, Kansas, Missouri, Iowa, Minnesota, Nebraska, Nevada, California, and Oregon.

*Supply exhausted.

¹ It was proposed to publish, during the Centennial year, a series of histories of colleges, universities, professional schools, and special schools of science, but the following named only were issued: Historical sketch of Mount Holyoke Seminary; Historical sketch of Union College, and the History of the University of Missouri, as above.

² From which all quotations are made.

BUREAU OF EDUCATION
CIRCULAR OF INFORMATION NO. 6, 1888

PROCEEDINGS

OF THE

DEPARTMENT OF SUPERINTENDENCE

OF THE

NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION

AT ITS

MEETING IN WASHINGTON

FEBRUARY 14-16, 1888



WASHINGTON
GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE
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LETTER.

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR,
BUREAU OF EDUCATION,
Washington, D. C., October 24, 1888.

The Honorable the SECRETARY OF THE INTERIOR,
Washington, D. C. :

SIR: I have the honor to transmit herewith the proceedings of the Department of Superintendence of the National Educational Association, at its meeting in Washington, February 14-16, 1888, for publication.

The addresses are upon a variety of educational questions delivered at this meeting, and are specially pertinent to the present condition of educational methods. The essays and papers are by some of our most thoughtful and able educators, and, appearing in this form, carry with them the opinions and comments of other experts. The proceedings of this body have been annually published by this Office as a circular of information, and are valued and esteemed very highly by the educational classes of the country. I therefore respectfully submit them with the recommendation that they be printed, as in former years, as a circular of information.

Very respectfully, your obedient servant,

N. H. R. DAWSON,
Commissioner



NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION.

MEETING

OF THE

DEPARTMENT OF SUPERINTENDENCE,

AT

WASHINGTON, D. C.,

FEBRUARY 14, 15, and 16, 1888,

IN THE

HALL OF THE FRANKLIN SCHOOL.

OFFICERS.

PRESIDENT.

NEWTON C. DOUGHERTY, Peoria, Ill.

VICE-PRESIDENT.

HENRY A. WISE, Baltimore, Md.

SECRETARY.

W. R. THIGPEN, Savannah, Ga.

MASTER OF TRANSPORTATION.

C. C. DAVIDSON, Alliance, Ohio.

RECORD OF PROCEEDINGS.

TUESDAY, FEBRUARY 14.

FORENOON SESSION.

The Department of Superintendence of the National Educational Association met in the hall of the Franklin School, Washington, D. C., Tuesday, February 14, 1888, at 10 o'clock A. M.

The Department was called to order by the president, Newton C. Dougherty, superintendent of schools, Peoria, Ill. The exercises were opened with a song by a class of pupils from the Franklin School. Prayer was offered by Rev. C. C. Meador, of Washington.

MANUAL TRAINING.

Mr. Charles H. Ham, Chicago, Ill., was introduced and read a paper on, How and to what Extent can Manual Training be Ingrafted on our System of Public Schools? (Page 19.)

A. P. Marble, superintendent of schools, Woreester, Mass., being introduced as the man who was "to present the conservative side of the question," opened the discussion of the paper of Mr. Ham. Nicholas Murray Butler, president of the Industrial Educational Association of New York City; W. B. Powell, superintendent of schools, Washington, D. C., and H. H. Belfield, director of the Manual Training School, Chicago, Ill., followed in the discussion in the order named. (Pages 21-40.)

M. A. Newell, superintendent of schools of Maryland, replied to the points made by Mr. Marble, and presented the value of manual training in preparing for life's great work. (Page 40.)

Henry Randall Waite, of New York, believed in manual training, but did not think it could be introduced into all the schools of this country.

Mr. Kennedy, of San Francisco, Cal., said that very little had been said of a practical character on this topic. Superintendent W. E. Anderson, of Milwaukee, Wis., thought that a more practical solution of this question should be made. He then offered the following:

Resolved, That a committee of seven be appointed, whose duty it shall be to make a critical and careful examination of representative manual training schools, both as special schools and as related to the public schools; and to report to this body at its next meeting their judgment as to the results attained by this department of training, and how far its essential features may be incorporated into our public school system.

Upon the adoption of this resolution the following committee was announced: W. E. Anderson, Milwaukee, Wis.; D. L. Kiehle, St. Paul, Minn.; W. B. Powell, Washington, D. C.; H. A. Wise, Baltimore, Md.; H. W. Compton, Toledo, Ohio; J. W. Dickinson, Boston, Mass.; George Howland, Chicago, Ill.

Mr. Ham closed the discussion, devoting his time to the paper of Mr. Marble. (Page 41.)

AFTERNOON SESSION.

The meeting was called to order at 2.30 P. M., by President Dougherty.

COUNTY INSTITUTES.

The first paper was read by Jesse B. Thayer, State superintendent of public instruction of Wisconsin. His topic was, What is the Purpose of County Institutes and How is it Best Secured? (Page 44.)

M. A. Newell, State superintendent of public instruction of Maryland, opened the discussion, and was followed by Harvey M. La Follette, State superintendent of public instruction of Indiana, and Richard Edwards, State superintendent of public instruction of Illinois. (Pages 45 and 46.)

The general discussion was opened by E. E. Higbee, State superintendent of public instruction of Pennsylvania, who showed the defects in the management of county institutes, and made some very important suggestions as to their conduct. (Page 47.)

A. S. Draper, State superintendent of public instruction of New York, followed. His remarks are given on page 47.

ELOCUTION.

The next regular paper was given by Miss Martha Fleming, of Memphis, Tenn. Topic: Elocution; Its Place in Education. (Page 49.)

The paper was discussed by Mrs. M. Stephen Hart, of Washington, D. C.

Prof. Alexander Graham Bell, of the District of Columbia, Mr. S. C. Keiff, and Superintendent Howland entered into the general discussion.

WEDNESDAY, FEBRUARY 15.

FORENOON SESSION.

The Department convened at 10 A. M., and was called to order by President Dougherty. The session was opened with prayer by Rev. Dr. Shippen, of All-Souls Church, Washington, D. C. Music by a class of young ladies from the Franklin School.

The president announced the following committee on resolutions: B. F. Tweed of Massachusetts, H. H. Belfield of Illinois, and Solomon Palmer of Alabama.

An invitation was read from the school trustees of Washington to meet in the High School Building on Thursday P. M., in order that the teachers of the District may attend the session. The invitation was accepted and the thanks of the Department voted unanimously.

QUALIFICATIONS OF TEACHERS.

A. S. Draper, State superintendent of public instruction of New York, then read a paper. Topic: How Shall the Qualifications of Teachers be Determined? (Page 58.)

The discussion of this paper was opened by E. E. Higbee, State superintendent of schools of Pennsylvania, and continued by County Superintendent W. W. Woodruff, of Newtown, Pa., and D. L. Kiehle, superintendent of public instruction of Minnesota. (Page 66.)

The Commissioner of Education presented an invitation from Grover Cleveland, President of the United States, saying that this Department will be gladly received at 2 P. M. The invitation was accepted, and it was agreed that the Department call in a body.

President Dougherty read the following telegram from Ira G. Hoitt, State superintendent of California:

TO PRESIDENT DOUGHERTY:

The local executive committee of San Francisco of the National Educational Association meeting of 1893, by resolution, hereby sends cordial and fraternal greetings to you, and through you to the Department now in session at the Nation's capital, wishing you a most interesting and profitable meeting. The invitation heretofore extended to you all to attend the session of the Association here next July is hereby renewed and specially emphasized. The most complete arrangements are making to insure the success not only of the general, but of the department meetings, and to extend to our guests a genuine Californian welcome. It is desired that the members of the Department of Superintendence shall confidently assure the people of their respective States that they can not come to California next July by so many thousands that they shall not each go back feeling that he or she has been the special and honored guest of the occasion.

IRA G. HOITT, *President.*

JOE H. PRYOR, *Secretary.*

President Aaron Gove, of the National Association, being called upon, made a detailed statement of the arrangements for the great meeting of the National Educational Association to be held in San Francisco next July.

The Department adjourned at one o'clock and called in a body upon President Cleveland. The members of the Department were separately presented to the President by President Dougherty in a most graceful manner.

AFTERNOON SESSION.

NORMAL SCHOOLS.

The Department met at three o'clock, and listened to a paper prepared by James P. Wickersham, ex-State superintendent of public instruction of Pennsylvania, on the question, Are the Normal Schools as

they Exist in our Several States Adequate to Accomplish the Work for which they were Established ? (Page 70.)

This paper was discussed by John W. Dickinson, State superintendent of public instruction of Massachusetts, and Jerome Allen, professor of pedagogy, University of the City of New York. (Pages 74 and 78.)

The general discussion was opened by Dr. Edward Brooks, of Philadelphia, and continued by Prof. A. G. Boyden, of Bridgewater, Mass. (Page 79).

NATIONAL NORMAL SCHOOL.

United States Senator Stewart, of Nevada, was introduced, and proceeded to disclose his plans for a national normal school.

It is almost universally conceded that our Government is based upon education. This is a republic, but has a very complex system of operations. As society advances much more is required of a good citizen. The old republics all went down before the common enemy, ignorance. Grave questions are being discussed in and out of Congress, that affect the whole people. Our growth has been phenomenal, especially in our large cities, and the strain has been very great upon the governing forces of the country. The citizens must have intelligence and be educated up to the emergencies that environ our municipalities. The preservation of this country depends upon the unity of all the sections of the land. It seems to me that we might have an institution of learning in Washington that would tend to nationalize educational work. A national school to educate teachers here under national patronage must be moulded largely by the educators of this country. We do this for the members of the Army and the Navy at vast expense. Why not do the same for the teachers, that they may defend us against the enemy of all republican institutions, ignorance ? If the members of this National Association will favor such a national university for the education of teachers it will not be long before this institution will become a fact.

ILLITERACY IN STATES AND TERRITORIES.

Superintendent Luckey, of Pittsburg, Pa., offered the following resolution :

Resolved. That the attention of the Bureau whose function it is to prepare the census table of the United States be directed to the necessity of securing reliable information, showing the degree of illiteracy throughout the several States and Territories of the Union.

INTERNATIONAL COPYRIGHT.

Superintendent W. R. Powell, of Washington City schools, offered the following resolutions, which were read, and on motion laid over until the next day :

Resolved by the Department of Superintendence of the National Educational Association in convention assembled. That we urge upon the Congress of the United States the immediate passage of an act establishing international copyright—

First, on the ground of justice, and in regard for the good name of the American Re-

public, which is the only great civilized nation which refuses copyright to foreign authors.

Second, on the ground of expediency and in the interest of American scholarship and popular education; as the present system of literary piracy places American authors at the great disadvantage of having to compete with stolen literary wares, and tends to the supplanting of contemporaneous American literature by foreign literature largely of an undesirable character.

Third, because the piratical system, while it has discouraged our home authors, has also thrown the American publishing business into confusion, and created a demand for reform on the part of writers, publishers, and the entire intelligent community.

Resolved, That a copy of this resolution be transmitted to each House of Congress.

On motion of Dr. Jerome Allen, a special committee of five was appointed to report one year hence on the question of the establishment of a national university.

The following committee was announced: Charles S. Young, Nevada; W. E. Sheldon, Massachusetts; A. S. Draper, New York; Robert Allyn, Illinois; M. A. Newell, Maryland.

EVENING SESSION.

The Department met at 7.30 P. M., President Dougherty in the chair

MORAL TRAINING.

Dr. W. T. Harris, Concord, Mass., presented a paper. Topic: The Present Need of Moral Training in the Public Schools. (Page 81.)

Edward Brooks, of Philadelphia, opened the discussion, followed by J. A. B. Lovett of Alabama, E. T. Tappan of Ohio, and George Howland of Chicago. (Pages 91 and 98.)

A general discussion ensued which was participated in by a number of persons present. (Page 99.)

THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 16.

FORENOON SESSION.

The Department met at 10 A. M., President Dougherty in the chair. Music by a class of the Franklin School opened the exercises. Prayer was offered by Rev. Dr. Richard Edwards of Illinois.

SHORTENING OF SCHOOL PROGRAMMES.

The first paper was read by Charles W. Eliot, LL.D., president of Harvard College, Cambridge, Mass. His topic was: Suggestions on Keeping down the Average Age of Graduation from Public Primary, Grammar, and High Schools, respectively, and on Shortening the Period from the Beginning of the Primary to the End of the High School Course. (Page 101.)

14 PROCEEDINGS—DEPARTMENT OF SUPERINTENDENCE.

James A. MacAlister, superintendent of schools, Philadelphia, Pa., opened the discussion, and commended the paper of Doctor Eliot in the most emphatic way.

William T. Harris, LL.D., of Concord, Mass., followed with an address full of sound wisdom and practical suggestions.

ALASKA.

Hon. Nathaniel H. R. Dawson, United States Commissioner of Education, gave a very entertaining and instructive lecture on Alaska. (Page 119.)

The Governor of Alaska was introduced, and spoke of the extent and importance of that section of the country.

AFTERNOON SESSION.

The Department met in the hall of the High School on O Street.

Mr. Kennedy, of California, and Charles S. Young, of Nevada, extended an invitation to the teachers of the country to attend the meeting of the National Educational Association.

RESOLUTION OF THANKS.

B. F. Tweed, of Boston, chairman of the committee on resolutions, reported the following, which was unanimously adopted:

Whereas, This has been one of the largest meetings in the history of the Department of Superintendence, with specially favorable accommodations for the holding of meetings, and attention to the comfort and pleasure of guests, with the very general attendance of those invited to participate in the exercises; *therefore*,

Resolved, That the thanks of the Department are hereby extended those railroads that have granted reduced rates; the proprietor of the Ebbitt House for reduction of rate and uniform courtesy; the board of school trustees for the use and care of halls, and for the special courtesy of dismissing the schools on Thursday afternoon, that we might meet the teachers of the city; the United States Commissioner of Education for the interest manifested in our comfort; and the several speakers who have at their own charges been in attendance, presenting carefully prepared papers, and participating in discussions that must be of great service to the cause of education.

B. F. TWEED, *Chairman*.

SOLOMON PALMER.

Superintendent W. B. Powell's resolution was read the second time, and on motion of W. E. Sheldon referred to a special committee of five to be appointed by the president, said committee to report at the next meeting of this Department.

SUPERINTENDENTS AND TEACHERS.

John E. Bradley, superintendent of city schools, Minneapolis, Minn., read a paper on The Superintendent and the Teacher. (Page 135.)

A. E. Winship, of Boston, followed. Subject: The Relation of the Superintendent and Teacher to the School. (Page 143.)

These papers were discussed by George J. Luckey, superintendent of city schools, Pittsburg, Pa.; John M. Bloss, superintendent of city schools, Topeka, Kans.; and W. H. Baker, superintendent of city schools, Savannah, Ga.

EVENING SESSION.

The Department met at 7.30, at Franklin Hall, President Dougherty in the chair.

The committee on an international copyright law was announced as follows: W. E. Sheldon of Massachusetts, E. O. Lyte of Pennsylvania, Henry A. Wise of Maryland, H. M. La Follette of Indiana, and W. R. Thigpen of Georgia.

RESOLUTIONS.

The following resolution was introduced by Superintendent J. A. B. Lovett, and adopted:

Resolved, That this Department bears emphatic testimony to the continued value of the United States Bureau of Education to the teaching profession, to the wise conduct of the Office under the present Commissioner, to the faithful and efficient service of his subordinates, and also to the great value of its recent contributions to American educational history, which it is hoped will be continued in the line that has been so successfully commenced.

H. M. La Follette, of Indiana, offered the following resolutions, which were adopted:

Resolved, That we heartily endorse the bill introduced into the House of Representatives by Hon. W. D. Owen, providing "That catalogues of all institutions of learning, and all annual reports and minutes of religious, educational, and benevolent associations shall be entitled to transmission through the mails without limitation on the intervals of issue;" and we earnestly urge upon our Representatives and Senators in Congress the passing thereof, as manifestly just and proper.

Resolved, That a copy of this resolution be transmitted to each House of Congress.

NATIONAL AID TO EDUCATION.

The topic for the evening was National Aid to Education, and the first paper was read by J. A. B. Lovett, superintendent of city schools, Huntsville, Ala. (Page 146.)

Mr. Lovett was followed by A. P. Marble, of Worcester, Mass. (page 148). Superintendent Alexander Hogg, of Fort Worth, Tex.; L. B. Evans, Augusta, Ga.; and State Superintendent H. M. La Follette, of Indiana, took part in the discussion. (Mr. Hogg's remarks are given on page 153.)

The Department then adjourned to meet at San Francisco, Cal., with the general Association.

PAPERS, ADDRESSES, AND DISCUSSIONS.

MANUAL TRAINING IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

HOW, AND TO WHAT EXTENT, CAN MANUAL TRAINING
BE INGRAFTED ON OUR SYSTEM OF PUBLIC SCHOOLS?

By CHARLES H. HAM,
Chicago, Ill.

The effort to avoid labor is the chief curse of the human race. Idleness is a social crime. Work is the law of life, and hence the duty of all.

The schools do not train men to be useful, but to make others useful. In a country of equal rights this is a solecism.

This defect in our education dates back to Greece. It originated in slavery. Education then was for a few, whereas now it is for all.

Since Magna Charta, the Pilgrims, the French Revolution, and Lincoln's Emancipation Proclamation there is no longer occasion for directive intelligences. In a word, the education suitable to the slavery epoch is not suitable to the epoch of freedom.

The race has made a vast progress. Inductive philosophy has taken the place of abstract speculation; but conservatism controls educators.

Work is the most potent of all educational forces. Illustrations of this fact may be found in the extremes of art—in the early Italian painters and sculptors, whose fingers were disciplined to skill in the goldsmith's shops, and in the lives of the world's distinguished mechanics, notably that of George Stephenson, who compassed more good for man than all the soldiers, statesmen, and scholars of his time.

Rabelais, Montaigne, Bacon, Comenius, Rousseau, Pestalozzi, Fröbel, Carlyle, Huxley, Spencer, Dr. Maudsley, and Ruskin cited as authorities in support of the educational value of drawing, object lessons, and constructive exercises.

There is abundance of room for manual training in the schools. The students of the manual training schools of Chicago, St. Louis, Toledo, Philadelphia, and Boston spend three hours a day in hand work and yet make as much academic progress as the pupils in the city high schools. This is the most important fact ever disclosed by educational history; for it not only proves that there is room in the high schools

for manual training, but it shows conclusively its superiority over prevailing methods of instruction.

Doubtless this is revolution, but revolution, far from being the equivalent of destruction, is the great conserving force. Revolution represents the steps of human progress. But the conservative always cries, "Halt!" He is always holding the citadel and always losing it.

The false notion that hand work is degrading must give way. It has no legitimate place in existing social conditions. It is an insult to industry, talent, and genius—the triple power that moves the modern world. And this power must control the schools.

Labor alone is fundamental. We do not live by literature but by labor. Let the hand of labor be unlifted and there ensues an unfruitful pause. Silence in the field, the factory, and the shop means want equally in the palace and the hut. The hand which feeds, clothes, houses, and warms the whole human race must be trained.

The question how, and to what extent can manual training be ingrafted on our system of public schools is not to be answered in thirty minutes, nor at all by a layman. Upon school superintendents rests this responsibility.

Until work instruction shall have been widely introduced it can not be systematized. Many exercises will be tried; some will be found to possess greater pedagogic value than others. The best will be retained, the poorest discarded. So the new methods will be organized.

Labor is as sacred as manhood, and hence a fit basis for education. Labor is not a commodity, because no power can reduce it to possession in the hands of the alleged purchaser; it is a spark of divinity. Work, then, being divine, is a worthy foundation on which to build the educational structure.

Reform is needed. The social and economic conditions which confront us are of the most alarming nature; and educators can not escape responsibility. The more dazzling the aspect of our civilization the more terror it inspires, the schools have sown the seeds, not of moral health but of civil death.

All men ought to be made familiar, experimentally, with the toil and thought that enter into the construction of those things of use and beauty which contribute to the welfare of the human family. So only can we realize the social and economic value of the men and women who perform the hand labor of the race. The labor question has been raised and it must be settled justly. It will press more heavily upon our children than it does upon us. Let us prepare them for the discussion by making the schools the workshops of humanity.

The question of questions remains: "How shall the children be gathered into the schools and kept there from the kindergarten age to the age of physical maturity?" The progress made in product multiplying machinery permits us to dispense with the labor of children. It is the shame of the age that pale faced, hollow-eyed children should

toil that men and women may rest and feast. Against this I protest and say without reserve that it is the duty of the great army of educators of the country to enter upon a crusade for the rescue of the millions of innocents from the neglect, the stupidity, and the brutality of man.

DISCUSSION.

REMARKS BY A. P. MARBLE,
Superintendent of City Schools, Worcester, Mass.

PREFATORY.

I. This question is here discussed by three men eminent in the advocacy of manual training and by two superintendents of schools, who believe in introducing this kind of training into the public schools.

I believe neither in ingrafting it nor in uprooting the tree. My claim is rather that new shrubs and trees ought to be planted in the vacant spots in the garden.

II. It is difficult to oppose the popular wish. Cassandra found it so about the wooden horse at ancient Troy. Hence I have prepared myself to speak at greater length than I could wish. But since this side of the question is represented by myself alone, and five able men are opposite, you will, perhaps, bear with me.

III. It should be stated also that I am not the official representative of anybody. But, though nearly all the talk is on the other side, I feel sure that the great but silent majority are with me, and that in time they will be heard, all the more if we all have the courage of our convictions.

IV. And I am not an anti-school-progress man because I will not consent to every new notion. Professor Gilman, in a recent address before the Industrial Education Association of New York, and Dr. William T. Harris in the last Forum, and Hon. J. W. Dickinson agree with me that manual training ought not to be ingrafted. On coming into this hall I find an address of Hon. E. E. White, of Ohio, to the same effect. There are many other men who agree with me; but, like St. Peter before a warm fire in the high priest's hall, where an interesting maid-servant voiced the sentiment prevailing in the company, they are not willing to speak the truth; and like Galileo, similarly placed, they are not yet ripe for the martyr's crown!

HOW AND TO WHAT EXTENT CAN MANUAL TRAINING BE INGRAFTED ON OUR SYSTEM OF PUBLIC SCHOOLS?

The double form of this question implies that this kind of training is to be ingrafted, and that it remains only to consider how and how far. But the original question is by no means settled; my remarks will,

therefore, be chiefly directed to the question, to what extent? In the discussions on this general question there is a wide-spread indefiniteness as to just what is meant. The terms manual training, industrial education, and technical education are often used as if they were identical; and even physical culture comes in sometimes as if it were the same thing. Of the advocates of this general thing, this something which is here called manual training, there are four classes.

GYMNASTICS.

The first would introduce into the public schools tools of one sort or another, in order that by using them a part of each day the pupils may develop physical strength; for, they say, we have a threefold nature—the physical, the intellectual, and the moral; and education consists in training the whole nature of the child, and this ought to be done simultaneously in the school.

BREAD-WINNING.

The second would introduce this kind of training, in order to prepare the pupils for the business of life. A large proportion of the children in our schools, they say, must earn their living by some sort of physical labor or handicraft; and so these children ought to learn in school the elements of some trade or trades, so that on leaving school they may at once be self-supporting.

MIND-TRAINING.

The third class advocate this kind of training not for physical culture merely, and not for learning the trades, but because the dealing with material things benefits the mind and contributes an important, if not an indispensable, element to all intellectual growth.

GENERAL WELFARE.

The fourth class advocate the training on the broad ground, not only of all the three classes already enumerated, but for the still broader reason that this kind of training is the cure for nearly all the evils that infest society.

All these advocates agree that the training, whether for one of these purposes or another, ought to be ingrafted. There appears then to be a quite extensive demand for it; and this it means one thing to one, and something else to another. It is to be observed, also, that this demand comes chiefly from theorists, educational reformers, and magazine writers who look from an eminence; and with a zeal and earnestness which is commendable, they prescribe the remedy for the evils which they think they see. They are not, as a rule, men who have children in the schools, or who themselves feel the evils which they seek to cure.

DISPARAGEMENT OF SCHOOLS.

Besides the agreement in wanting this indefinite *it*—the manual training—there is a remarkable unanimity among these advocates, in a very general and wholesale denunciation of the school system, its aims and its results.

For the past ten years, the periodical press and the lecture platform have been crowded with essays to show the glaring defects of the public schools. It would fill volumes if I were to attempt to give a mere outline of these denunciations. Here are a few examples: Professor Leipziger (N. Y. School Journal, Vol. XXV, No. 3): "The existing system of education is not suited to the demands of our age and our country. * * * Children go to school to be trained *how* to learn, *how* to help themselves, *how* to study, and not to acquire in the brief period of their school-life, a list of dates, or rules, or marks."

In its connection, the plain implication here is that the latter is what they get in schools—a list of dates, or rules, or marks—and that the former will be furnished in just the right quantity by manual training. He continues: "The three R's, if no industrial training has gone along with them, are apt to produce a fourth R—rascaldom." Beware the alliterative R.

Mr. Charles Francis Adams (Manual Training, etc. By Charles M. Ham. New York: Harper & Brothers. 1886): "From one point of view children are regarded as automatons; from another, as india-rubber bags; from a third, as so much raw material. They must move in step exactly alike. They must receive the same mental nutriment in equal quantities, and at fixed times. Its assimilation is wholly immaterial, but the motions must be gone through with. Finally, as raw material they are emptied in at the primaries, and marched out at the grammar grades—and it is well!"

[From the same book]: "The methods (of the schools) are unscientific; they are still dominated by the mediæval ideas of speculative philosophy."

One of the ablest educators (James McAllister) in this country has well observed that "there has been very little change in the ideas which have controlled our methods of education, and these ideas were formed something like four hundred years ago." If age merely be an objection, it may be noted that Comenius and Froebel and Pestalozzi and Rousseau, names which are conjured with, are not modern.

Col. Francis W. Parker (from the same book, page 206): "If I am not greatly mistaken, the school-master, for the last fifty years, has been incessantly inventing ways of doing things in the school-room, by doing something else. * * * This futile attempt to do things by doing *something else* is to-day costing the people of this country millions and millions of hard earned dollars; and it is much to be feared that it will one day cost their children the blessings of a free government."

Pay for forty weeks of school, \$8,132, at the annual rate of \$10,576. A few girls reported money earned yearly, \$286, making the annual earning of about one-third of the pupils \$10,862; and to this must be added an unknown amount of home work of great value, though not paid for in dollars and cents.

Now, if anybody can find in these cold facts any ground for the charge that the high school begets a disposition to shirk or to despise labor, or that it creates an undue ambition for literary or professional pursuits, it would be interesting to see him derive this comfort! and yet there is a somewhat wide-spread belief, engendered by the magazine writers, the newspapers, and the educational reformers, that the high school has such a tendency. There is no reason to suppose that Worcester is at all singular in these statistics. In fact, in the reports of several cities within the past year, from all where statistics of this kind have been published, there is a similar showing, and there is no reasonable doubt that the same is true of most cities and large towns. In all the smaller towns there can be no question about it.

III. And, thirdly, it is charged that the schools do not develop the faculties of observation and of accurate thought; that the whole system from top to bottom is wrong; that manual training alone can prepare the mind to investigate nature, and thus in handling all the forces of nature, to elevate the race to the image of God.

On this subject I quote from *The Academy*, February, 1888: "The fact that all the world is ready to make note of it, if an educated man fails to get on, speaks volumes for the rarity of the occurrence. In the ordinary walks of life failure is too common to call for much comment;" and from a Washington letter in the *New York Evening Post*, of the 3d instant: "My facts are, first, that Charles Darwin received a strict, rigid, or if you please narrow, classical education extending through school and college; second, that his working mind evinces the keenest observation, the deepest reasoning, the most patient research, the most careful deduction;" and the writer well asks the other side to "name a naturalist, philosopher, or scientist who, having been trained in early life by means of a scientific or optional system of education, developed in after life a better working mind than Mr. Darwin's;" and he concludes that "a strict, rigid, or even narrow classical education furnishes the best possible training for the working mind of the future naturalist." It may be added that Mr. Darwin never found difficulty in using his hands; and all the great progress up to the present time, political, social, intellectual, scientific, industrial, even the great discovery of the universal efficacy of manual training—all has been brought about by men educated under a system wholly wrong, because it does not include manual training!

IV. There is another assumption on which the apparent popular wish for manual training rests that is entirely erroneous. It is assumed that pupils on coming to school do not use their hands; that they

can not handle things; that they are unfamiliar with materials; that they do not know the nature of wood, and iron, and stone, and cloth; and that they are not acquainted with work. Of course, there can be no great degree of skill, in any of these directions, in children under 14 years of age; and their knowledge of the material universe must in the nature of things be comparatively slight at that tender age. There must necessarily be many things which they do not know.

But there is ground for the belief that children have more knowledge of material things, and more skill in the use of their muscles, than of anything else. Their whole life up to the school age consists of the perceptions of the senses and of physical activity. What they generally lack, and what they as a rule get nowhere else, is the mental training. All the knowledge they have has come from the things which they have seen, and felt, and handled. In school they get acquainted with books; they have opened to them the vast store-house of knowledge which is laid up in books; and they ought to learn how to extract that knowledge.

The gamin who comes to school for the first time is not lacking in the muscular sense nor in muscular activity. His hands are trained better than any other part of him. He can run, and jump, and swim, and skate, and slide; he can use his fingers deftly in a variety of ways; he can pick your pocket and extract your watch. If any one were to seek in a school to find out what the boys and girls can do with their hands, he would easily collect statistics which would surprise him by their extent and variety, and would be even more conclusive against the theory that children have not the use of their hands than the high school statistics are against the notion that the pupils are opposed to manual work.

The supposition that children have not the use of their hands is about as far from the truth as it would be to suppose that the child can not walk when he comes to school. If you watch a child who has been let alone judiciously till the age of five years, who has had the opportunity for the impulses of nature to assert themselves, you will find his movements graceful, and his motions spontaneous and responsive to his thought. Even his emotions find expression in the muscles of his face and the tone of his voice.

Suppose now that it were to be affirmed that after all children do not walk as they should. They may be lacking in certain conventionalities, and there is always a certain proportion of extremely awkward children, born so, and always to remain so unless by special instruction they are cured of it; and there are enough of these to create a sentiment in favor of a school for them whenever any one sufficiently interested and earnest originates the plan.

Suppose, again, that by the process of instantaneous photography every posture of the body in walking and every motion, in due and orderly succession, were to be represented; and then, that with the pictures to illustrate and the teacher to exemplify the pupils were

taught to walk, upon an elementary, synthetic, and scientific plan. It is tolerably clear to my mind that children could never be taught to walk in this way, and the principal reason is that they already know how to walk. Such a refinement of teaching so ordinary an act as walking would be highly useful in a school of imbeciles, and to introduce it into the ordinary school would imply a degree of imbecility which does not exist. In kind, though not at all in degree, the assumption that children in schools have not the use of their hands, leads, it seems to me, to an absurdity similar to the above, and it implies an imbecility with which the children of this generation are not chargeable. The readiness with which the thousands of children who early leave our schools engage in every kind of handiwork belies the assumption.

RÉSUMÉ.

It is my belief, then, that the demand for ingrafting manual training on our public schools rests upon a false estimate of what pupils know, and of what the schools are doing for those pupils; it seems to me that this demand is based on a fourfold claim of gymnastics, handicraft, educational necessity, and general welfare—this claim having a fatal lack of unity. It is also my opinion that this demand does not proceed from those who are most concerned—the parents of the children.

GENERAL WELFARE.

The general-welfare claim, that manual training is the cure for most of the ills of society, is ably and admirably set forth in the book already cited—*Manual Training, the Solution of Social and Industrial Problems*—by our distinguished friend who has preceded me. This kind of training is recommended as a cure for strikes; for failure in business; for political dishonesty; as a mental stimulus; as the conservator of language, and the chief means for its enlargement; as the remedy for selfishness with all its attendant train of evils; and much more. To quote: "A system of education consisting exclusively of mental exercises promotes selfishness, because such training is subjective. Its effects flow inward—they relate to self. All mental acquirements become a part of self, and so remain forever unless they are transmuted into things through the agency of the hand. * * * Manual training on the other hand promotes altruism, because it is objective. Its effects flow outward; they relate not to self, but to the human race. The skilled hand confers benefits upon man, and each benefit so conferred exerts the natural reflex moral influence of a good act upon the mind of the benefactor."

Prof. Felix Adler (quoted from the *Princeton Review*, March 1882): "And now I would point out how the occupation of the work-shop and the atelier combined tend to establish in the mind of the pupil an unselfish and impersonal standard of valuation which will prepare him

admirably for the truer moral estimates of life. * * * His work is devoid of any pecuniary value. It is a mere typical form. Its worth consists in being true or in being beautiful. And a habit is thus formed of judging things in general according to their intrinsic rather than their superficial qualities. Gradually, and almost insensibly, the analogy of the work performed on outward objects will be applied to inward experience. * * * He is at the same time shaping his own character, and a tendency of mind is created from which will eventually result the loftiest and purest morality."

This claim is highly ideal, not to say visionary. In practice it would be demoralizing to keep pupils at work producing things "devoid of any pecuniary value." The "loftiest and purest morality" that is to come from manual training specifically is far-fetched. And the connection between selfishness and our system of education, and the intimate relation existing between manual training and altruism, and the golden rule, has not in my opinion been shown. On the contrary, there are no instances within my observation, or, so far as I know, recorded in books, where that kind of training has converted the tendency in human nature. The best products of the best polytechnic schools do not apparently differ in this respect from the product of the college and the university.

In what remains to say I want to waive the general-welfare argument as being too ethereal and beyond the range of public schools. We will omit also the gymnastic argument and the bread-winning or handicraft argument, since the introduction of manual training is no longer advocated by its principal supporters on this ground.

THE MENTAL CULTURE

Argument is now at the front. Here the claim is that manual training is essential to mental culture; that as the kindergarten furnishes the best training for very young children, so the shops and tools in the grammar schools are indispensable in training the mind to exact thinking; that as the laboratory and actual experiments are so useful in the study of chemistry, so the carpenter's bench is a prime requisite in the study of arithmetic, the English language, geography, and history; that words are deceitful, and things must be handled or made, or else all ideas are necessarily vague and unreal, and words express no thought. This claim seems to me to be mere assertion. If we mean that the best mental growth requires a sound and active body, that appears to be self-evident. If we mean that a child must ordinarily have hands to use his books and his pencil, and eyes to see the printed words, and ears to hear his teacher's voice, that is a mere truism. If we mean that a boy or a girl can not be taught arithmetic or geography well without using tools and making something with his hands every day, that has not been proved. On the contrary, hundreds of thousands of children have been well taught without any such things. The very pupils in the

manual training schools that have been so interesting and successful in Chicago and St. Louis have been so taught, and upon this very teaching their proficiency largely depends. The quality of the teaching determines the usefulness of any school, whether with manual training or without; and there is no surer guaranty that the teaching will be good in the one case than in the other.

The manual training school at St. Louis, with its shops and forges, so eloquently described by that exceedingly able advocate, Professor Woodward, appeals to the imagination. The school at Chicago, with its fine machinery, its superb building, its hum of busy wheels, and its intelligent pupils, commands our admiration.

These are special schools. Pupils are admitted at the age of fourteen after passing an examination in the grammar school studies, which would admit them to the high school. All this, then, so delightful in its place, has no more to do with the question of ingrafting than the success of a polytechnical institute has to do with a university, or than the excellent work of the technical school has to do with a college. These are separate and distinct institutions, each useful and necessary in its field.

There may be, and there probably is, a field of usefulness of the same kind corresponding to the grammar school grades. If such schools were established they would have a certain patronage. It would not be so large, I am sure, as is generally assumed.

Schools of this kind have been established. The one at Toledo, as I understand it, is of this kind. The one in Philadelphia and that in this city (Washington) and that in Boston, though maintained at the public expense and connected with the public schools in school-houses, are in reality special schools. There is one in Worcester, at the Polytechnic Institute, in the summer vacation. The Mechanics' Association of that city has moved towards the establishment of such a school, with my advice, and, I might almost say, at my suggestion.

To extend this special training and ingraft it upon the school system, as a part of the course of study like arithmetic and geography, is quite another thing. It is a doubtful experiment, and the ground for it, as a necessary part of mental culture, is not well established. However well the Philadelphia experiment may succeed on a small scale, its expansion to embrace all the schools of the city would cost an enormous sum; and what works well while it is new and in a limited field is quite another thing when made a general study throughout the schools and in all grades.

And in this mental-culture argument there is a great fallacy. The incessant dealing with things confining the attention to material objects, finding all truth not in the ideal world of thought, but in the material world of machinery and tools, this is the very opposite of mental growth. That growth consists largely in the power to abstract the mind from the things of sense, and to handle the thought when not clothed in mat-

ter. It is the very purpose of education in schools to give the pupils that power over their minds which they already have over their bodies. In manual training as it is to-day quite generally advocated, in the emphasis that is placed on what can be seen and felt and handled, in the decrying of all education which does not deal directly with the material universe, there is a tendency to a gross materialism which will in the end be destructive of the best mental culture.

And, further, there is in the presentation of this subject a magnifying of material prosperity, an apotheosizing of an outward success, whose influence upon education must be bad. Bessemer invented a new process for making steel, and the yearly product is worth \$500,000,000, I have seen it stated. Gladstone is a mere scholar and statesman, who has invented no process in manufacture; he has merely ruled the British Empire and done nothing which will at all compare in value to the human race with the invention of a new process for making steel. No one would wish to detract from the praise that is due to the inventor. But if the statesman has, by wise legislation, made it possible for millions of free people to enjoy the products of steel; if he has lifted the yoke from millions who were oppressed and made them free; if he has made the way easier by which the future Bessemer may complete his invention and enjoy its fruits; if he has let in the light of religious freedom where before there was spiritual bondage—is there not something in this which is worth more than \$500,000,000 a year, though it has no money value? And yet, according to the manual training valuation, there is nothing in a Gladstone to compare with a Bessemer. It was said above that the manual training and the tools can never become general in the schools, like arithmetic and geography, on account of the cost. From the New York School Journal of January, 14, 1887, I extract the following: "As a plea for greater school facilities, attention has been drawn to the fact that there are over 45,000 children between five and fourteen years of age in Brooklyn not attending any school, public or private, and that weekly 8,000 more are in attendance than the seating capacity of the schools. This is possible by allowing a large number only half a day's regular attendance and putting the little children two in a seat. Why doesn't Brooklyn wake up?" Wake up to what? Why, if we would follow the New York School Journal, to the organization of manual training in the schools, the purchase of tools and timber, and a largely increased expense for the schools they have; not to opening more. I see by last Saturday's New York Evening Post that in Springfield, Mass., it costs \$50 a head to educate in the manual training annex. At this rate it would cost Brooklyn, for her 45,000, \$2,250,000.

In Jersey City, by the last school report which I have seen, there were 51,000 children of school age, of whom 23,000 were in the public schools. There are school accommodations for less than 16,000 pupils; and of the 28,000 unaccounted for, 700 have applied for admis-

sion to school without success; and there are 7,000 more pupils in school than the rooms will accommodate. Jersey City ought, then, at once to adopt manual training with its greater cost, ought she? New York and Philadelphia and Washington, where manual training has been introduced, can, of course, make a better showing; but I do not dare to look at the statistics, for in the New York School Journal aforesaid of December 3, 1887, it appears that insufficient school accommodations is the rule among the cities of New York, and probably the same is generally true.

The attempt to make this kind of training general in the public schools would, if successful, tend to break up the whole system; by overloading the schools, we may easily create a revolt from the burden of taxation. In St. Louis that revolt has come, for of several causes to which the recent diminution of the appropriation has been attributed, this seems the most probable. (I can not find the paper in which that case is reported; the statement is from memory.)

Usually every experiment with manual training in the public schools is pronounced a success by its promoters. "The pupils like it." They like anything which is new if it seems like play. When it becomes work they may not like it so well. "They do not fall behind in their other studies." They may be brighter than the average of pupils, for they are selected, and in some cases they must first pass a strict examination. But already it has failed. A Massachusetts city appears in the list of manual training cities. A wealthy and benevolent lady furnished the money to attach this kind of training. I quote from the superintendent of schools in that city, under date of February 2, 1888:

"The experiment of manual training in this city was tried by my predecessor seven or eight years ago. I find it began nine years ago. A lady of Boston, residing here summers, offered \$600 a year for the purpose. It was continued about two years, and when the lady declined to furnish the funds it was dropped. But little interest was developed among the people here, so says the ex-superintendent in his last report. * * * I was considerably interested in the matter, and would have been glad to continue the experiment a while longer, but the life had all gone out of it. It does not seem to have made any lasting impression on the boys and girls who were pupils. They neither became artisans nor showed any unusual ability mentally, so far as I can learn. It is somewhat curious that, in a city where they were clamoring for a 'practical education' and considered 'secondary education' a humbug by a 'large majority,' something more lasting did not result. The novelty wore off and it was dropped. The experiment may have been too limited to form any opinion upon its merits. I have since heard much discussion pro and con, but I am by no means convinced that the public schools should undertake the work. I believe in special industrial schools, and that every city should maintain one or more."

The experiment has been tried at North Easton, and this is what the

principal of the high school says of it: "We have carpentering, cooking, and sewing; * * * and why these more than half a dozen others? * * * The pupils lost their interest in the regular studies, and were constantly begging extra half-days for shop-work. This would be considered a point in favor of shop-work, I suppose, by the unthinking; but if the mere matter of preference is the chief consideration, why not introduce Punch and Judy into Sunday schools? * * * My first Latin class nearly went to pieces when I came to the subjunctive mode. Of course as the girls began to drag in their work the boys naturally followed suit, as they didn't have to work very hard to keep up with them. The class in French went to pieces much in the same way. As for doing good work, it was impossible. The classes in physics suffered most." After more in the same style, he continues: "Policy would dictate silence; but I have counted the cost. 'It is not all of life to live, nor all of death to die.'" In another letter he says: "I am sure there can be but one result; learning to 'think through the fingers' means simply not to be able to think without something in the fingers. The tendency to materialize everything will certainly be felt sooner or later. My nearest neighbor, an intelligent mechanic, says there is something he can not teach his children, things he is anxious to have them know; and this he wishes, so far as may be, to have attended to at school, for it will be then or never with them; he wishes to have them obtain as thorough an intellectual development as possible, and then he will try to find out what they are best fitted for afterwards. It seems strange to me that no effort has been made to try the industrial experiment on Saturdays and during vacations. I have talked with many of my pupils and I know that the best of them, those who give character to the school, think as I do that it interferes with their studies, as it is now conducted. Sincerely yours, M. C. Lamprey." Here is a man whom the manual training people will class with me as "opposed to progress." Here is one school gone to pieces with the experiment. If you say that the school was poor or else the experiment would have succeeded, then do not talk of ingrafting, but of uprooting. But inquiry will show that this was a good school; and the teacher is evidently a thoughtful and conscientious man. If the experiment was poorly conducted, then it is likely to be so in a majority of cases; for Miss Morse, who has it in charge, claims, I understand, that the experiment is a success there. And the teacher, for daring to express his mind, evidently anticipates martyrdom and does not fear it. The brave die never.

There is another objection to this ingrafting. No one kind of work with tools is of general utility. The hammer, the saw, and the plane are of no particular use to the weaver, and the hammer of the blacksmith is not the hammer of the silversmith, except in the same general sense in which the ordinary command of the hand which everybody has is useful to everybody. Special aptitudes should be taught in special schools.

In Zurich, the birth-place of Pestalozzi, they have a system of schools which embraces special schools adapted to the industries of the place. They have no manual training ingrafted upon the school system. Manual training, then, should not be ingrafted on our public school system at all, except in the most general forms like drawing, and a little paper-cutting, and modelling in clay in the elementary grades. Special schools should be established wherever they are needed and can be afforded, adapted to the industries of the place, but not till after the general school training is provided for every child.

There is a tendency among us educators to expand our domain, and to include the whole range of human possibilities, just as the church tends to expand itself from the original domain of worship to include Sunday-schools, sociables, picnics, benevolent enterprises of all sorts, meetings, and societies, till the faithful communicant has little time for anything else, and the whole social life is absorbed. In like manner we broaden our range to include about everything that belongs to the life of the child. We work to make the school supreme; we will not allow the child time nor opportunity for anything else; we concern ourselves about his physical welfare, his intellectual progress, and his spiritual well-being; and now we step forward to fit him for the duties of life. For however much we may seek to defend and to promote manual training for its intellectual value, no one who looks can fail to see that the real purpose is to prepare children at the absurdly youthful age of fourteen for earning a living; and if this were once understood not to be the purpose, nine-tenths of all the advocates of that training would desert. We ought to be more modest in our pretensions, and recognizing the prime responsibility of parents, and the wide range of training of all sorts which children get outside of school, we ought to concern ourselves chiefly with our special duty of training the mind; not by confining the attention to wood, and iron, and material things, but by using objects and sense perceptions as stepping-stones, and training the thought to take wings and soar!

Manual training should not be ingrafted at all; it ought to be provided in special schools as they are needed and can be afforded. It is not ingrafting that we need, but more shrubbery in the vacant spots in the field of life.

REMARKS BY NICHOLAS MURRAY BUTLER, PH. D.,

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Webster defines ingraft as "to fix or set firmly or deeply," and the question now before the Department of Superintendence is not one of theory, but of ways and means. It may be paraphrased thus: How and to what extent can the training of the child's powers of expression, by delineation and by construction, be fixed or set firmly and deeply in

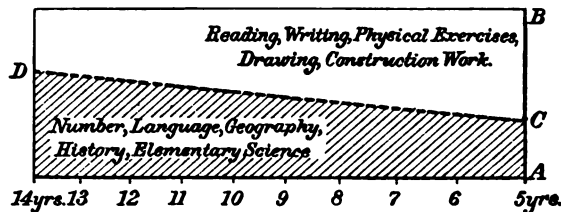
our public school course of study? We are not at this time called upon to discuss the philosophy of this matter. That stage is, or ought to be, past, for a body of educators like this. It has been incontestably established that the powers of expression by delineation and construction, the judgment, and the executive faculty must be trained as well as the observation, the memory, and the power to reason. The history of education, the history of civilization, and the science of psychology all focus upon this point. What is said about teaching trades, turning the schools into workshops, overcrowding the teachers and pupils, and so on, has no more relevancy in this discussion than a dissertation on the injurious effects of ice-water or an objection based on the rigors of a Dakota winter. The question relates to education purely and simply, and to education in the broadest sense in which we use the word. It has no reference to any sort or kind of special training, whether technical or professional. And the subject is both too pressing and too important to permit us to spend time in wandering off to fight duels with windmills or with the creatures of any one's vivid imagination.

In answering the questions put before us by the executive committee experience will certainly have weight, and conclusions based upon what has been done and what is doing will unquestionably outweigh any opinion deduced from mere theoretical assumptions. It has been my privilege to see manual training ingrafted on the public-school course of study in the model school of the New York college for the training of teachers and in the special classes conducted by the same institution. I have seen, and am daily seeing, manual training in operation from the kindergarten to the high school. The effect of it upon the general school work is remarkable, especially when we bear in mind how short a time the pupils have been in attendance on the school, and that the work has been surrounded by a number of embarrassing limitations. I could spend ten times the ten minutes allotted to me this morning in recounting the details of the work, and in telling you its beneficial effect, not only on particular children, but upon the school as a whole. That, however, must be passed by, and I shall simply state the principle on which I have proceeded in ingrafting manual training on the public-school course. It is that on which I believe any successful manual-training course must be based.

Manual training can not be treated as an annex or appendix to the traditional course of study. It does not claim admittance as a favor; it demands it as a right. The attempts now making in certain localities to add manual training as an extension to the present course of study can not have full measure of success, if any. If manual training is expedient, if it is necessary, then the curriculum must be overhauled with reference to its admission. We can not increase the length of the school course, nor the length of the school day, nor the tasks now imposed on teacher and pupil. Therefore the ingrafting of manual training involves the whole question of the course of study, and opens up a way

to put the course of study on a scientific and rational, instead of on an empirical and haphazard basis. I believe this can be done. I will take it for granted that the length of the school day now usual, is quite sufficient.

In the diagram, let A-B represent the length of the school day. The course of study must have reference to the time contained in it. The line C-D will represent approximately the dividing line between the time to be allotted to the child's in-taking or receptive powers and to his out-giving or expressive powers, as it exists at the various stages from the lowest primary grade, when the child is five, to the highest grammar grade, when he is, on the average, thirteen or fourteen years



of age. The shaded portion represents the receptive training, and the unshaded the training of expression. At five years of age the only important faculty among the in-taking powers is sense-perception, whereas the expressive powers are well represented by the rudiments of almost all human activities, both physical and intellectual. As the child grows and develops, the higher mental powers, such as conception, judgment, and reasoning, begin to assume importance, the in-taking powers make increasing demands, and a relatively greater and more varied training must be provided for them. Now, the studies which appeal to the in-taking powers and train them, are number, language, geography, history, and elementary science. Those which appeal to the expressive powers and train them, are reading, writing, physical exercises, drawing, and constructive work. It is this drawing and constructive work which is included under the term "manual training." Drawing, which is the training of the power of expression by delineation, lies at the basis of all constructive work, which is the training of the power of expression by construction, and must go side by side with the latter. The constructive work will be represented in the various grades by material within the power of the child to handle and use. It will be block-building, stick-laying, paper-folding, and easy clay-work in the kindergarten. It will be paper-folding, paper-cutting, and clay-work in the primary and lower grammar grades, and in the higher departments it will take the form of wood and metal work, sewing, and cooking. In the university it is represented by laboratory methods in the scientific departments.

It is not for a moment asserted that any one of these studies is independent of the others and appeals to a single faculty, and to a single

faculty only. The inter-action and inter-dependence of studies is as complex and as complicated, as the inter-action and inter-dependence of the human faculties. It may, however, be broadly asserted that manual training, while appealing directly to the powers of expression, reacts very strongly upon the power of observation. The child can never delineate exactly nor construct correctly, unless he observes accurately.

With such a framework for the course of study as is here indicated, we look to psychology and school-room experience to furnish us the material for its amplification. The normal course of study which we shall one day reach, will be built up in some such way as this. It will not be a procrustean structure, absolutely and unqualifiedly alike for all localities and for all schools, but it will have in it a principle, and that principle will be founded on a scientific basis; and the highest duty of the educator will be its application to his own particular needs and demands. But nowhere and under no circumstances will manual training be omitted from it. It will be firmly and deeply set and fixed in the scientifically devised course of study.

W. B. POWELL, superintendent of schools, Washington, D. C., advocated kindergarten training as one end of the line and scientific manual training as the other end. These new elements of education are here, and have come to stay. The kindergarten has revolutionized the whole system of primary education. The introduction of these new lines of thought are of such value that they compensate for all the time and trouble that they have cost. The changes that have been wrought are known by many names. We choose to call this method in the lower grades the "natural method," and in the higher branches the "scientific method." The training of the eye and hand is now demanded. This culture looks at the constructive and scientific methods in the grammar grade of school work. Manual training will change the processes of school work, and consequently must be ingrafted into this grade of schools. We can not rely upon "side shows," such as special schools would supply only to the few. We must have a purpose in all school work. We must not saw wood for health only, but for the pay. He advocated actual work in all the departments of manual training, such as cooking, sewing, and the construction of actual things.

REMARKS BY H. H. BELFIELD, PH. D.,

Director of the Manual Training School, Chicago, Ill.

One of the evidences of the slow evolution of the race is the difference of opinion prevailing, even in this age, in regard to the true province of education. Besides minor differences, two totally diverse theories are strenuously advocated. The friends of the one maintain that no education is worth anything which does not first of all inculcate the duty and develop the power of self-support. The other party scoffs at

this "bread and butter" theory, and as stoutly maintains that nothing having any practical or pecuniary end in view should ever be granted a foothold in a public school; that the development of a child is the first and only object of education.

It may be possible that there are elements of truth in both these views, although apparently diametrically opposed. In fact these two theories come into collision principally, if not wholly, in regard to elementary and secondary instruction, since their advocates both believe in professional schools at public expense. I think that we are all agreed, also, that the object of a collegiate education is to fit a man to enter upon the study of a profession, to make him a good citizen, to play well his part in life, whatever it may be, and to enable him to enjoy life, in the highest sense of the word "enjoy." The best educated man, aside from his professional training, is he whose mental, moral, and physical powers are best developed. This man is prepared to do well whatever he may undertake. Before he is educated as a lawyer, or as a physician, he has been educated as a *man*. Unfortunately, a collegiate training is possible to a very small number of our people. Professor Huxley thinks "the great mass of mankind have neither the liking nor the aptitude for either literary, or scientific, or artistic pursuits; nor, indeed, for excellence of any sort." Be this as it may, we all know that a very limited number of our pupils ever enter a high school, much less graduate from it. In Germany, where the number of highly educated men is supposed to be, and probably is, in larger proportion than in our own country, over 96 per cent. of all males over ten years of age are possessed of an elementary education only.

The public school has been called "the poor man's college;" it certainly gives the great mass of our people all the "schooling" they ever have. Should it not therefore fit its pupil for his life work, as the college fits for his life work him who has enjoyed its advantages? Should it not give him a "liberal education," viewed from the standpoint of the workingman, as the college gives a "liberal education" viewed from the standpoint of the scholar? Should it not be a preparation for his technical work, as the college is a preparation for the technical work of the professional man?

The well-educated man has many fields open to him,—law, medicine, divinity, business, etc. The grammar or private school man has very few open to him, and, for want of preparatory training, is often compelled to enter those callings in which little skill and intelligence are necessary, and competition therefore very great.

I am not able to agree with those who demand that the public school should teach a boy a trade. It should, I think, teach what is demanded of all. The college is not a professional school; it paves the way for professional training of all kinds. So the public school should not be a trade school, but should pave the way for many trades. It should give a liberal education to the *brain and the hand*, as far as it can, and not,

by training the brain only, lay foundations for professional training only. Hand training is needed by *all*; by the professional man as well as by the artist and artisan. So eminent a man as James Nasmyth advocates, as an essential part of education, the simple handling of fragile articles, the moving of them from one part of a room to another part.

Do not understand me to decry trade schools. If the manufacturers were as wise in this respect as they are shrewd in most things, they would establish trade schools as the physicians establish medical schools, and the lawyers law schools. The public school should fit a boy to enter a trade school with the alphabet of the trade, as the college fits the boy to enter a professional school with the alphabet of the profession.

It is an erroneous notion that a manual training school is a trade school. The best equipped manual training schools do not profess to take the place of the apprenticeship. They teach the rudiments of several trades, and develop intellectual power to acquire several trades easily.

It may be of interest and value to consider for a moment who advocate and who oppose manual training. While many of its friends are found in the teaching profession the largest number of its earliest advocates were not, rather are not, teachers. I do not forget Drs. Runkle and Woodward, Mr. McAllister, and others; but it is nevertheless true, that the teachers generally have been slow to appreciate this education. I well remember the large and enthusiastic gathering that greeted General Walker's address last July at Chicago; but I also remember the meetings at Saratoga and elsewhere, where the friends of manual training numbered a score and its enemies were legion.

Consider the founding of the Chicago Manual Training School. It was first advocated in the public press by a lawyer, Colonel Augustus Jacobson, and by the gentleman who read the first paper of this morning, neither of the two being a teacher. The school was organized and is owned by the Commercial Club of Chicago, an association of sixty merchants and manufacturers, mostly merchants, not a professional man of any kind among them. Some of these sixty men are not what are called educated men; others are college bred. Not the style of college bred men, however, who decry collegiate training because it does not produce ready-made book-keepers or railroad men; but men who advocate the study of Latin and Greek from a business point of view. These men founded the Chicago Manual Training School, and there was not a schoolmaster among them.

To these facts may be added another, viz, that the great majority of visitors to the Chicago training school are business men, lawyers, and doctors; and they all regret that it was not their good fortune to have such training. The clergymen and the teachers, the men who come into contact with the world least of all, generally eye it askance.

Is it not possible that a wider acquaintance with the actual needs of the age might change the views of the pedagogues and the ministers? Are not we school-masters disposed to believe that there is no education except book education? Do we not act on the hypothesis, even if we disclaim it, that the object of education is knowledge, ignoring the fundamental fact that the great end of education is action through knowledge? Pestalozzi said, "Education is the generation of power." Huxley says, "What men need is as much knowledge as they can assimilate and organize into a basis for action."

Our plans of primary education change as the nature of the child is better understood. The kindergarten is a great step in the direction of training the child in accordance with the laws of its being. I expect to see the use of *things* encroach still more upon the use of *books* in the early years of the child's life. Rousseau's remark is certainly true of the child in his early years. "One hour's work will teach your pupil more things than he can remember from a whole day's explanation." I am not surprised that a "connecting class" has been found necessary between the kindergarten and the primary school. The primary school methods *repress* the child's demands for activity of body (and of mind also) instead of directing them. Those restless energies of the fledgling should be *utilized* to his education, instead of being considered obstacles to it. The child is mischievous because he has nothing else to do with his *hands*. In my judgment manual training would pay its cost simply as an aid to discipline. In no school are there such opportunities for practical joking as in the manual training school; and in no school is there so little of this pest.

I have no solicitude concerning the future of manual training. The subject has gained the attention of American teachers, and of the American public. You and the large body of intelligent and thinking men and women whom you represent, will think and work the matter to its logical result, and you will make manual training an essential part of the curriculum of the public school.

REMARKS BY HON. M. A. NEWELL.¹

State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Maryland.

When I first considered this question of manual training, I began, as Mrs. Malaprop says matrimonial speculations ought to begin, "with a little aversion." Further acquaintance, however, resulted in an ardent devotion, which would probably have lasted till the end of my life, had it not been for the overwhelming arguments of my friend from Massachusetts (Mr. Marble). I had thought, in my simplicity, that our public school system was still imperfect, or, to say the least, immature. But my friend has convinced me that I am wrong. It is "a thing of beauty"

¹ This report of Mr. Newell's remarks is taken from the School Journal (New York and Chicago).

and "a joy forever." No man should lay a profane hand on this sacred ark. It needs neither revolution nor reformation, and the introduction of manual training into our already perfect school system would be equivalent to a revolution. It is true, one can hardly specify which of our systems is the really perfect one; whether it is the Virginia system or the Massachusetts system, and if it be in Massachusetts it would be hard to say in what particular locality this perfection is to be found—in Springfield to-day, or in Quincy before the advent of Colonel Parker. But what can be more certain than that the system which produced such brilliant geniuses as Clay and Webster and Everett and Sumner and Lincoln needs no support from this new-fangled auxiliary called "manual training"? Indeed the only instance of late years in which a President of the United States fell short of the standard of his predecessors and the expectations of the people was that of a man whose common school education has been ruined by a post-graduate course of manual training. How thankful we should be that Alexander Hamilton and Thomas Jefferson and Charles Sumner never learned to drive a nail or run a jack-plane!

I was particularly struck with Mr. Marble's argument that "manual training" is unnecessary, because children can use their hands very expertly before they come to school; any further training would be as superfluous as the teaching of grammar to a child who already knows how to talk. What imbeciles these professors at West Point must be who pretend that it is necessary to teach the cadets to walk, as if that had not been a common exercise from youth upwards.

Another most convincing argument against manual training was urged by Mr. Marble. The advocates of this innovation claim that young people should be taught the use of tools. But how is that possible? says he. What tools will you select? The hammer? Why, a carpenter's hammer is not a blacksmith's hammer, and a blacksmith's hammer is not the same as a silversmith's. The difficulty is just as great as to teach the use of the pen. A boy accustomed to the "gray-goose quill" is non-plussed when he takes up a steel pen, and if trained to the use of a steel pen he will need new lessons to make a gold pen familiar. Even in steel pens every one knows that a child who can write with a "Gillott" needs months of practice before he can use an "Esterbrook."

CLOSE OF THE DISCUSSION BY MR. HAM.

Mr. HAM was given five minutes in which to close the discussion. He said:

The gentleman from Massachusetts, Mr. Marble, reminded me of the teacher who asked a pupil to describe the great American desert, but in turn was asked, by the visitor, if she did not know that the great American desert produced the finest wheat in the world! He reminded

me of the pupil "well up" in geography who was surprised to learn that her father's back garden was a part of the earth. He reminds me of the "philosopher" appointed to criticise a paper I once read before the Chicago Philosophical Society, who began by saying: "I have long been of the opinion that any man who proposes to put anything new into the public schools ought to be sent to a lunatic asylum." He reminds me of Dr. Zimmerman, superintendent of German in the schools of Chicago, who lately declared, in a committee report of the board of education of that city, that "ideas find their expression alone in words." The gentleman is against "novelty." He is against "progress." He said so. If he meant what he said, I respectfully suggest that he is unfit for any position in the field of education. If he intended to perpetrate a joke, I suggest with due deference that this is no place for displays of wit. The subject of education is a serious one; it is the most important subject that can engage the attention of man. The profession of educator should be raised to the first dignity, not degraded by indulgence in vain trivialities. Mr. Marble made extensive quotations from my published work on manual training, referring to the passages invariably with a sneer. But sneering is not argument, and I do not feel that it is necessary to occupy the brief minutes accorded me for reply, in considering the details of his paper. I have submitted my *views* to the convention, and the gentleman has submitted his *sneers*. I am willing that the verdict should be rendered in the case as it stands.

The question of education is the supreme question of this, as of every age. To belittle it is to destroy the last hope of progress. No truly great mind can fail to expand with generous warmth when the subject is brought forward for discussion. Flippancy in the treatment of any phase of it is entirely out of place. It deserves the most conscientious attention of all noble minds. The question of the hour is to make education more practical. As I remarked in my opening paper, we do not live by literature, but by labor. I bow to no one in my love of the beautiful in literature, but I detect greater beauty in greater use. There is, to me, more sentiment in a locomotive or a steamship than there is in the works of Shakespeare. George Stevenson is a grander figure in the history of the progress of man than a score of the first statesmen of that time. The influence of Mr. Bessemer's new process of steel manufacture reaches to the ends of the earth, and that influence is everywhere and always beneficent. I can not close without renewing my solemn plea in behalf of children. It is time for us to do justice to them—justice which is the sweetest of mercies. It is time for us to say with unfaltering purpose, little children shall no longer work that men and women may live in idleness. In my paper of this morning, I had the pleasure to cite many great names in support of the educational theory which it is the chief purpose of my life to see adopted as the corner-stone of our system. I beg once more to draw attention to those names. They are the great teachers, scientists, and

philosophers of the ages. They illumine history and shine like stars of the first magnitude in the firmament of literature. They have blazed a path for educational progress. It is unsafe to disregard their lofty precepts. Dangers of every description surround and threaten us. The labor question towers above all others, and it can be settled only according to the dictates of justice; all other roads lead to despair. If we heed the utterances of Rabelais, Montaigne, Bacon, Locke, Rousseau, Pestalozzi, Fröbel, Carlyle, and Spencer, we may organize, on the solid foundation of labor, a system of education whose aim and mission it shall be to regenerate the race.

COUNTY INSTITUTES.

WHAT IS THE PURPOSE OF COUNTY INSTITUTES, AND HOW IS IT BEST SECURED ?

BY JESSE B. THAYER,

State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Wisconsin.

[Abstract taken from the Pennsylvania School Journal.]

The present function of the teachers' institute is not for detailed instruction to teachers. Its work is to stimulate the general work of the teachers. The first stage is to gather teachers at the great centres of population to listen to lectures. The second is devoted to more detailed discussions of pedagogical principles and methods; and the third object is to give more or less instruction bearing upon the branches to be taught in the schools. The institutes are sustained by State law, under the supervision of the board of regents and of the State superintendent of instruction. One of the professors of each of the State normal schools is specially employed in institute work a portion of each year. The institutes are held at two seasons of the year; one of two or three weeks in April, and longer terms in July and August. These institutes are managed by a plan made by a committee of the board of regents. The institute work is developed by means of a syllabus provided by the committee for use of the instructors. It includes school economy and management, and professional training of the teacher, and its aim is not to do academical work. "What to do, and how to do it?" should be the great work of these aids, to stimulate the great body of teachers to do better work, and indirectly to awaken an interest in the public mind. The purpose of the institute is best met by organizing it on the plane of intellectual improvement in the work of teaching.

Referring to the historical facts that mark the development of the institute in Wisconsin, he said that during the initial stage it was characterized by large and enthusiastic meetings of teachers and patrons, for a brief period, who sat silently in admiration of the eloquence of the distinguished educators from abroad who addressed them, or were interested by local talent in the discussion of corporal punishment and moral suasion, word-method, and alphabetic method of teaching reading, oral and written methods of teaching spelling, the purpose being tem-

porary and preparatory only. During the second stage it was characterized by a tendency to extend the time of the institute from a few days to as many weeks, and to substitute the idea of school for that of convention and the stern realities of ignorance of teachers upon the subject to be taught for the enthusiasm of eloquent speeches and interesting discussions. The institute served the purpose of establishing, in a general way, a standard for qualification for teachers in the branches required to be taught, and its results in this respect were of great value. The teacher ought to expect to obtain from institute instruction ideas that will suggest better methods and enthusiasm in his work, and, in fact, he ought to obtain additional knowledge in the subjects to be taught. That the institute may be organized with a view of accomplishing this comprehensive purpose, it is necessary that there should be a local superintendent to whom the teachers are responsible for their legal qualifications. The superintendent should be assisted in the work of the institute by one or more persons who are something more than successful teachers, assistants who see clearly the laws of mental growth and power and the unfolding of the branches to be taught in harmony with these laws. They should see the evolution of the child's moral nature, and know what management will guide it from the condition of obedience to authority and external requirements, to the condition of self-control and obedience to moral law. They must know the attainments of the teachers whom they instruct, must understand the conditions under which their work is done, and be apt in turning to account varied experiences as a means of lifting into consciousness the idea and principles that underlie successful teaching and management.

DISCUSSION.

State Superintendent M. A. NEWELL, of Maryland, followed, sketching the method of conducting institutes that tends to leave the teachers with a mass of unassimilated matter and want of harmony in the instruction given in them. Much contradictory instruction is given by hobbyists, tending to confuse the teachers rather than to aid them to better work. He closed with the suggestion that the institute could be combined with teachers' reading circles.

State Superintendent HARVEY M. LA FOLLETTE, of Indiana: The evolution of the county institute has varied greatly in different States. Many have passed the point in which mere text-book and elementary instruction is given, and in which progressive professional work is being done. In Indiana there are 14,000 teachers, many of whom are more or less incompetent to do their work. In regard to the length of institute terms he thought they should be longer than *one* week. He favored two, three, or even four weeks, as the length of an institute. The reading circles are doing a great work in Indiana. One of the obstacles to institute work is the ignorance and incompetency of county superintend-

ents. Manuals are issued for guidance by a committee of the State board of education, that cover the general ground of institute work. Natural method work is an important part of the work. Supplementary work, such as the information of reading circles, is another mission of the institute.

State Superintendent RICHARD EDWARDS presented the following as to the institutes of Illinois:

TEACHERS' INSTITUTES IN THE STATE OF ILLINOIS.

1. They are conducted under the direction and authority of the county superintendents of schools. But the instructors employed must be licensed by the State superintendent. In all other respects the entire responsibility comes upon the county superintendent. He fixes the course of study, appoints the conductor and the instructors, with the qualification just named, and determines every question that arises concerning the management of the institute.

2. The law requires that the institute shall continue at least five days. As a matter of fact, in most cases, it continues from two to four weeks. As a rule the county superintendent prolongs the meeting as long as his funds will permit.

3. The course of study is commonly, and perhaps always, both academic and professional. In this matter a judicious superintendent considers the wants of the teachers and of the schools. In some of the counties few persons ever apply for situations as teachers who are not well prepared in the academic studies. For such the most valuable training will be in the principles and methods of education. In many counties this part of the work is emphasized, and by far the larger part of the time is devoted to it. But in some counties the preparation of teachers is less perfect, and drill in academic work is really necessary. This, however, is so conducted, academic instruction is so given, as to illustrate the best methods, and to exhibit the truest principles of teaching. Probably in no institute held in this State is the work exclusively professional or exclusively academic.

4. The cost of conducting the teachers' institutes in this State varies greatly. In some cases it does not exceed fifty dollars, in others it amounts to six hundred dollars. This depends largely upon the size of the county, the number of persons who apply for teachers' certificates, and the liberality of the county boards of supervisors.

5. The funds for the support of the institutes are derived from—

(a) The fees paid by candidates for teachers' certificates. Every applicant for an examination for such certificate, and for each renewal thereof, is required to pay a fee of one dollar.

(b) Besides this, the county superintendent is directed to demand a registration fee of one dollar each from every member of the institute who does not hold a certificate or who has not paid one dollar for examination. This money the county superintendent is required to pay into

the county treasury, and it can only be drawn out therefrom upon orders to defray the expenses of the institutes which the county superintendents are authorized to hold.

(c) County boards sometimes aid the superintendent with appropriations from county funds.

6. Every person holding a valid teacher's certificate from the county superintendent is entitled to five days' gratuitous instruction in the county institute. If the institute continues for a longer period, such a tuition fee may be charged as the county superintendent deems advisable, and the teachers are willing to pay. In some instances the funds in the hands of the superintendent are sufficient to continue the institute gratuitously for two or more weeks.

7. Besides these institutes, shorter meetings of teachers are provided for in a law passed by the last Legislature. The time spent by teachers in attendance upon such meetings, to the extent of five days in the year, and three days during any one term, is considered as school time, and the teachers are paid for such attendance as if they had been employed in their schools. This law would apply also to attendance upon regular institutes for the indicated number of days, if they should be held during term time. As a matter of fact our regular institutes are mostly held during the summer vacation.

State Superintendent E. E. HIGBEE, of Pennsylvania, said: In my judgment, under proper limitations of law, the whole responsibility of the county institute should be thrown upon the county superintendent. All the purposes to be served by the institutes are properly within his jurisdiction. The teachers, acting under his certificates and his inspection, are to assemble together at his call. He can best determine, in conjunction with other superintendents, the most appropriate time and place for such assembling. The instruction to be given, if at all adapted to the specific work of the teachers, he can best determine and procure, from the very fact that by critical observation he knows the defects which should be corrected, the encouragements which are needed, and the false tendencies which should be checked. So also in regard to the general influence to be exerted on the community at large, his advice and direction must be of large help to the State Department, present, so far as possible, either through the superintendent of public instruction or one of his deputies. This very responsibility, challenging the county superintendent in full, awakens energy and strengthens resolution, and every success stimulates to still greater activity.

With the teachers properly remunerated for their attendance and the responsibility confronting the superintendent to see that their interests are faithfully subserved,—which of itself, as before said, calls out his very best efforts,—we have the best assurance, we believe, of a well-conducted and profitable county institute.

State Superintendent A. S. DRAPER, of New York, followed, and took ground against large institutes; he thought the tendency was to

have too much lecturing in them. He advocated holding institutes in term time, and not in vacation. It is wrong to tax teachers to that extent. The attendance should be compulsory, and teachers should be paid for their time, the same as though they were teaching. The teachers should be present during all the sessions of an institute. Institute work should not be left exclusively to county commissioners. The New York system is to hold institutes at fixed times, designated by the county commissioners. All the expenses are paid from the State treasury. There is a regular corps of institute conductors, who are each paid \$2,500 a year. One conductor is assigned to each institute. He, in connection with the local committee, prepares the programme, which is printed weeks before the institute opens. Each teacher in attendance is requested to ask questions and make suggestions, and it is thus made a real teachers' *institute*.

ELOCUTION.

ELOCUTION: ITS PLACE IN EDUCATION.

BY MARTHA FLEMING,

Memphis, Tenn.

While a few educators are beginning to think of elocution as having some place in education, and therefore some relation to public school work, the majority do not yet recognize it as an educative force, but look upon it with distrust, if not with contempt, as an artificial thing, fit only for triflers, unworthy the notice of earnest thinkers and workers. At best, to use the words of Superintendent Howland, of Chicago: "As usually taught by professionals, they consider it of doubtful utility."

That much so-called elocution, the methods of teaching it, and the results obtained are objectionable, is unfortunately too true. To many, elocution means anything but a natural expression of thoughts and emotions. It is associated with a few recitations of the style of the "Polish Boy" and others of that ilk, having a doubtful literary value, and a still more doubtful moral influence, chosen, one is forced to conclude, for the opportunity they give the performer to attract attention to his own personality. We are so familiar with these exhibitions, these marks of elocution, that I need not speak further of them. This kind of elocution is already in its death agony; it may die hard, but it is bound to go; yet through it the art has fallen into disrepute, not only among educational men and dramatic artists, but among people of culture and taste in every profession, until often, when speaking of my work, I am uneasily conscious of a desire to explain what I really *do* do, and thus make way for the elevated noses around me to come down.

Out of this reciting, this unwholesome public display of children, painful to every true lover of childhood, has grown an idea that only a certain kind of a child should study elocution.

I can't describe her. (I say *her*, because boys do not often take naturally to such displays.) Nature may have been niggardly with this girl in the supply of brains, in the absence of which commodity she is apt to be strained, pert, struck at herself, and usually stage-struck. She may be stoop-shouldered and flat-chested, but woe to the teacher who dares to suggest that brains or mental and physical power and

culture are among the first requisites of an elocutionist. Teachers meet with just such children and their parents every day. To quote their words, they have a "talent for elocution." They wish to recite, and recite they will; while injudicious friends, selfishly wishing to please, "maist ruin a'" by their ill-timed flattery. That better thinking and better teaching are rapidly doing away with these evils I may safely affirm, for the quality of the work done in any department determines its usefulness. The work of the late Professor Monroe, of Professor Churchill, Dr. Emerson, Mrs. Parker, of to-day, and many other faithful, genuine teachers, will bear witness to this assertion.

From the earliest date this study has been looked upon as a preparation for public speaking—the pulpit, the bar, the stage. That it has helped to make some of the greatest actors and orators is a well-established fact. Wendell Phillips, Charles Sumner, and Henry Ward Beecher were diligent students of the art. Mr. Beecher says: "It is the consecration of the whole man to the noblest purposes to which one can address himself, and should take its place among the highest departments of education." In the schools we have not thought much about it, except as a sort of luxury, to be indulged in for Friday afternoons, exhibition days, and commencements. Then we have called in some professional, or pressed the teacher of Greek or mathematics into the service, and attempted to graft the graces of oratory, after years of neglect of all that goes to make that great power.

To be able to state clearly and forcibly one's thoughts in public is an exceedingly desirable thing, and it is no doubt the right of every child to have the training that shall enable him to do so. The vital question for the school to decide is: Do we claim too much when we say that this form of expression, like all other forms, is a means of development, of mental, moral, and physical growth, a factor in character-building, a source of power, a preparation for life, which is the great aim of all education? Many of the arguments for manual training are equally forcible when applied to the whole body as the medium of expression. Among other forms of expression, man writes his thoughts in words that live forever; he carves his fancies in wood; he chisels his noblest ideals out of marble; on the canvas he paints in glowing colors his fairest dreams; he puts his soul into his voice or fingers and lifts us through music into an atmosphere of joy and self-forgetfulness; in the tones of his voice, the words of his mouth, the movements of his body, he proclaims himself so that he who runs may read, and thus "he turns, as the soul knows how, the earthly gift to a use divine," and through expression grows in power to think, to feel, to execute.

Every human being has in some measure the power of expressing himself through each of these mediums, and if education is the highest, most symmetrical, most harmonious development of all the faculties, there should be no unused powers, no neglect of any gift that is in use; every form of expression should have its place in education, because no

one can take the place of the other. To leave one out means lack of harmony, a crippling of the whole being. Why, then, should the schools leave out that which lies nearest man's heart, namely, the voice in speech and the body in pantomime? Elocution deals with these, and involves a study of soul, from which all thoughts and emotions spring, and a study of body, through which all thoughts and emotions express themselves. We know man only as he appears to us in the body; we can not even imagine a spirit disassociated from form. The soul acts through the body and, in turn, is acted upon by the body, this action and reaction helping or hindering their mutual growth; and every attempt to provide a training for the one that ignores their intimate relations and dependence upon each other must result in disaster.

We have passed through all stages of one-sided education. The Greeks aimed at physical beauty and perfection. In the reaction, the church crucified the flesh for the good of the soul; and in these days millions are spent in providing brain-training in our schools, and still we are talking of physical culture as if it were something to be done by itself for the mere sake of physical health and power, while development comes only through motion. The child's first manifestations are motions; it kicks and creeps, investigates everything that comes in contact with it, runs, hops, and jumps, and through these expressions of itself learns the world around it, grows in mental and physical power. Expression is life, and physical training, while full of uses as a means of bodily health, has its highest use as a means of intellectual and moral growth. "Thy body, at its best—how far can it project thy soul on its lone way?" That is the test, if the body would fulfill its highest destiny.

All habits of body, whether in voice, muscle, or nerve, growing out of inherited tendencies, or out of environments that tend to prevent free expression of thought, are so many obstacles in the way of a child's growth, which it is the province of the school to remove, if our education aims to give full liberty. Enough proof of failure exists in the imprisoned voices, the stooped shoulders, cramped, narrow chests, slouching walks, jerky, angular, self-conscious movements, so common among school children, especially of the higher grades, and when we consider that each of these tones, inflections, attitudes, and bearings tends to reproduce the emotions and conditions of which it is the legitimate expression—that the boy with the passive chest will become meaner, more cowardly, more hopeless, or physically weaker, and that every time he is forced to assume a strong, manly, courageous, hopeful bearing, a step is taken toward establishing and making permanent these qualities in his character—the peril of allowing physical expressions of evil to become fixed grows alarming, and the necessity of a training that shall insist upon those expressive of good, imperative. A physical training with this in view must meet more fully than any other the requirements of exercise and health, because it brings the body into harmony with the

laws of its own organism. Let me quote from a letter received from Mr. W. B. Powell, who has observed this form of training and can speak with authority. He says: "If the subject of health alone is to be considered, the right kind of elocutionary drill is to be commended in the highest degree. No other work in physical training of whose results I have any knowledge is as satisfactory, is as beneficial, as the right kind of work in elocution." Let me add that the right kind of elocution aims to develop every power of the body; to make it free, plastic, capable of spontaneous use when under the inspiration of thought. It teaches a deeper reverence for the body, as divine in its use as the soul, whose true helpmeet it should be.

I speak more particularly of physical training, because we are accustomed to think of elocution as dealing especially with voice and speech. These are but other forms of expression, and wrong tones, like wrong attitudes and movements, grow out of wrong thinking, and tend to make permanent the conditions of being which gave them birth. Here I am at liberty to quote from a letter written by Professor McLeod, of Aberdeen, Scotland: "Elocution may be made a mere waste of time if the aim of the teacher is merely vocal training, or even to develop mere expressiveness. I desire to work in the full knowledge that behind every bad tone there lies some mental error or defect, and that the shortest and best way to correct speech is just true thought and feeling, wrong sound from wrong thought, true sound from its parent thought."

Defects in articulation require a skilled knowledge of their causes and their treatment. The tones of the voice, the articulation and pronunciation of English, the schools hope to teach through the reading lessons; but it is a lamentable fact that many of the teachers themselves are woefully deficient in the first requirements of good reading. The sharp, loud tones of voice, or the nasal, whining ones, the slovenly articulation, defective utterance, the provincial or, worse, the over-nice, painfully distinct pronunciation often heard, not only among school children but among teachers, suggest that elocution is a necessity, first for the teachers, who are unconsciously teaching all they themselves are to the children, for children are born imitators, and will faithfully reproduce the tones, inflections, mannerisms of speech, bearings of body, and even gestures of those about them; therefore they should hear only elegant English, spoken in the "soft, low voice, so excellent a thing in woman," and see only such movements of body as are expressive of the most harmonious conditions of being. The more perfect the physical expression of the man or woman in voice, speech, and movement, the better the teacher. Faults strike the consciousness of the child first, because they are inharmonious, and therefore it is the bad points of the teacher, rather than his good ones, that are apt to be perpetuated in the child, and that not through total depravity or original sin in him, but through the actual transgression of the teacher.

Natural expression conditions truthful tones of voice, strength of mus-

cle, ease in the economic use of that strength which is called grace, and the habit of unconscious response to thought. These conditions are the inheritance of the majority of children. They are graceful, they are expressive, they say what they mean, suiting the action to the word; there is no question about the truthfulness of their inflections and emphasis when their own wants and wishes, likes and dislikes, are to be made known, and we older people, stiffened by over-energizing, cramped by environment, hampered by conventionality, attempt to teach these little ones to express themselves! May we be forgiven! One little child can teach us more about natural expression than the greatest actor that ever trod the stage. It is the little child that leads us; he thinks, he feels, he acts, unconscious of all law; he is the only free being, and instead of robbing him of these gifts and graces of his childhood, our real work is to help him to carry them through his school-life into the broader life of the world; to make his power of expression keep pace with the mental culture upon which we so pride ourselves; to work with unwearying, never-ending effort to keep him from forming bad habits; and if we keep the good always before him in the person and speech of the teacher, half this work is done.

The mother and primary teacher should be artists in their use of themselves. Colonel Parker says: "Elocution should be employed to *teach teachers alone*, so they may use bearing, carriage, voice, articulation, melody, harmony, and so on, as a great means and influence in developing character in the pupils; that all that belongs to Delsarte means power, *mental* and *moral*, ease and grace for the teacher."

There is a feeling abroad that grace is something for ladies and the dandies of the drawing-room to cultivate; but awkwardness means loss of power, loss of strength, and waste of energy. Therefore the very uses of life, the most thorough preparation for it, give the highest possible warrant for the cultivation of grace.

A practical knowledge of the laws of expression involves a knowledge of human character in all its varieties and of the modes whereby it reveals itself in acts. Such knowledge will help the teacher to observe and know the inherited tendencies of the child, which, through wrong training, tend to lead downward; and also to apply the right training at the right time in a spirit of love, sympathy, and patience born of a knowledge of their cause.

Among older children much of the training is reformatory, and requires untiring, patient toil on the part of both pupil and teacher. Only an unbounded enthusiasm and belief in the work will sustain the teacher, for this growth, like all growth, is *slow*; results are not to be expected in a few months. Right doing must be continued in until it becomes second nature and produces right *thinking*. Even then, it is sad to say, the old habits will sometimes try to assert themselves. No after-training can make up for wrong training in early years.

Three years ago a certain class of twenty girls and two or three boys,

averaging about ten and a half years of age, began this work. One little girl carried her head down and thrust forward. Every day she is obliged to walk, talk, and run with it well thrown back, sometimes carrying a bag of sand or a book on it to strengthen the muscles that have become weakened by disuse. Another sat, stood, and walked with flat, receding chest; another was narrow-chested. To these a few carefully selected physical and breathing exercises were given, and the expression of some emotion that called for an opposite carriage. Another halted in step; one lisped; one hesitated in speech; and so on. They walk, run, hippity-hop to music to acquire rhythm. They have all kinds of movements in harmony with the laws of universal motion. They pick up books and handkerchiefs, which they pass to each other and to the teacher with graceful courtesy. They gather imaginary flowers and fruits—real enough to them—and gradually graceful, rhythmic movements are becoming habitual, individual faults are disappearing, and normal, healthy attitudes are becoming permanent, and this at the age which is usually considered the most awkward one in a child's life.

Often these children come into the class, and without a word from the teacher each one goes at the practice especially prescribed for her, just as men and women do in a gnasium. Criticism never seems to annoy them. They know what they are working for. They recognize the difficulties and gladly accept every suggestion without any apparent shyness or self-consciousness, working with their own bodies just as they would with any other material. They have before them always the best ideals, and have studied from casts and pictures many of the forms of beauty immortalized by the classic Greeks. They compare themselves with the ideal and work towards it, and they can draw a comparison between the poise and freedom of a Diana or a Hebe and the fashionable belles not at all flattering to the latter. As a consequence, corsets and high-heeled shoes are in bad repute. The whole sentiment is for freedom.

Moreover, they know that noble expression demands noble *thinking*; that no affectation of the graces will serve; that, as Herbert Spencer says, "Expression is feature in making," and that the face and body at sixty are but the history of a soul that has beautified or disfigured them.

They are never asked to read, to try to give a thought beyond their comprehension; for there is no surer way of crushing thinking-power and making an originally bright boy or girl a stupid one than by attempting to make him express what he can not, because of his years and present condition of culture, make his very own.

The English of these children is gradually losing its peculiarities, spite of the colored nurses and servants with whom they are surrounded. The price paid for this is eternal vigilance.

They know, too, something of the melody and rhythm of English prose

and poetry. Their vocal work is very simple, the aim being to cultivate the voice through the emotions, and, by keeping nature and truth always before them, they read without, as Bottom has it, "aggravating the voice." They have still four years of school life before them, and are to continue this study, not, as you see, for sake of public display, but for sake of growth and general intelligence.

In the large schools of the great cities the same thought could be carried forward, adapting it to existing conditions, and making the teacher of each room the strongest helper.

Educators have been heard to object to elocution in the schools because of the kind of literature used by many elocutionists. Certainly the schools have no use for literature vicious in its tendencies or of even questionable literary value; but there is an abundance of good literature for such study, and good elocution will put life and spirit into it. No other study of literature is so thorough; the thought must become a part of the life, get into the blood and circulation, and thus it develops the emotions, and makes one live in their atmosphere; hence the peril of calling into being evil, and the imperative demand for only that literature that shall rouse and make active good and noble emotions, which, in turn, give rise to lofty aspirations and lift the children out of the common-place of every-day life into the atmosphere of poetry, music, and art, from which they may draw an inspiration that will give them joy in the use of their full powers, no matter in what direction life's work may lie. Prof. Mark Bailey, of Yale College, once remarked that "a thorough study of each literary piece in the higher readers will be of more benefit to the pupil in giving him an insight into human life, and directive power and influence among his fellow-men, than all he will or can learn from the other branches taught in the schools."

The taste for the masterpieces of English once formed and with it the taste for truthful dramatic representation, and a decisive step has been taken towards purging the stage, which is a part of our present civilization and one of our great educational powers, of bad morals and bad work. Establish a taste for fine dramatic performances, and the immoral, miserable stuff will die of starvation.

This work is along the line of the great French master, Delsarte, and I know that these results are the aim of some of our best teachers; but, so far as I can learn, little has been done in this country towards putting this kind of training into the schools. Professor Monroe and others have made vigorous efforts to interest the teachers. Some of the normal schools have special teachers, notably the Cook County normal, of Illinois, Mrs. Frank Stuart Parker; and the Oswego normal, Dr. Mary V. Lee. Mr. Powell also had at one time a special teacher in the schools of Aurora, Ill., and he says no one thing ever accomplished so much for the children in so many directions.

Professor McLeod, master of elocution in the public schools of Aberdeen, Scotland, has under his supervision the reading and speaking of

ten thousand children. He says: "The study of elocution was introduced into the public schools (seventeen), grammar schools, and girl's high school of Aberdeen in 1874. I organized classes for the instruction of the teachers and assistants in the principles of speech; then I visit once a week every school and personally teach the class, or classes."

Professor McLeod's salary is paid out of the school rates; and perhaps the very best proof that the work has been satisfactory is that during all these years the rate-payers have never uttered one word of grumbling.

I do not claim that elocution is a universal panacea. I do not believe we shall find any one thing that will cure all the ills the children are born heirs to. Neither can I prove that it directly brings in dollars and cents, except as all intelligence helps to do. Perhaps it does tend to lessen doctors' bills. But, because it touches all sides of the being, it is an important educational factor, one that the schools can not afford to do without.

The teachers should have it, because they are models for the children—teachers of expression—whether they will or no. Both teacher and child should be trained in elocution, because it teaches English speech, because it teaches how to get and give thought from the printed page, because it frees the voice and lets out the living tone that speaks from heart to heart—the tones of sympathy, dignity, and eloquence that attract towards purity, truth, virtue, and love. It cultivates the æsthetic taste—the love for the beautiful and the true in nature and art; and beauty is one of the best things in life. It insists upon a physical training that not only makes for health and strength, but makes automatic all movements of body that save force and produce right thinking.

The public schools should teach elocution, because it will help to accomplish these objects for the masses for whom these schools exist, and at very little expense. Genius will take care of itself; but through this training many a poor, cramped, expressionless boy and girl (there are plenty of such in the schools, and they are not going to be sent to special schools or imbecile asylums) can be straightened up physically and mentally, taught self-respect, helped into some definiteness of thought and purpose, and into a self-helpful and helping manhood or womanhood.

DISCUSSION.

MRS. M. S. HART, of Washington, D. C., opened the discussion. She thought much of the adverse criticism on elocution was caused by those who are not artists. Just as soon as the child is able to express his thoughts he should be taught to express himself distinctly and correctly. The child must be natural and spontaneous, but trained in correct habits.

PROF. SILAS C. KEIFF, of Philadelphia, continuing the discussion, said that effective oral expression is produced by an adequate grasp of the thought, and a proper control of the media of expression. The true teaching of the subject will be mainly devoted to securing to the pupil a full possession of the thought. Its educational value thus becomes apparent. As generally understood and taught, it has little educational value. So far as the teaching of reading in the public schools is concerned, its object is not primarily to develop the power of oral expression, but to give the power to get thought by means of printed language. The great cause of ineffective oral expression is to be sought, not in the expression itself, but in the thought back of it. Thought properly conceived will generate its own expression. As ordinarily grasped, however, the expression resulting fails in satisfactory results.

QUALIFICATIONS OF TEACHERS.

HOW SHALL THE QUALIFICATIONS OF TEACHERS BE DETERMINED?

By A. S. DRAPER,

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Who shall be permitted to teach in the public schools, and by whom, in what manner, and upon what general principles shall the qualifications of teachers be determined, is a question than which there is none more vital connected with the administration of schools. It goes to the very root and foundation of all substantial school work. When an unqualified person is certified under legal forms and by the law's officers to be qualified, it not only casts reproach and discredit upon the law and its officers, but it brings school administration into contempt. The unqualified teacher is a blight upon the schools. He has a certain advantage over his qualified neighbor engaged in the same work, for he is willing to work for less money and submit to more indignities, and accordingly he finds the most ready employment. So long as an indiscriminate issuance of certificates continues in any State, no matter whether under the forms of law or not, there can be no such thing as a teaching profession, no general and proper exaltation of the teacher's vocation, and no systematic organization for aggressive and progressive educational work.

What has been and is being done to make sure that only proper persons are in charge of the public schools? I will endeavor to state the situation fairly and as fully as I can in a paragraph. From the early days there have existed some sort of legal provisions against unqualified teachers. All of the States have provided some statutory method for determining and certifying the qualifications of teachers. Each State has a way peculiar to itself. The school laws of the different States to which I have been able to refer indicate that examinations are held and licenses issued very generally by or under the direction of State boards in the West, by county boards in the South, while in conservative New England the old-fashioned, time-honored school committeemen inspect the schools and license the teachers. New Jersey and Indiana have as good systems, I should think, as any State in the

Union. I presume I will not be wide of the mark if I say that, generally, there are three classes of authorities for granting licenses in the different States, viz: First, a State board or superintendent; second, normal schools; and third, county or district boards, or commissioners in the country and city boards or superintendents in the cities. I have no means of determining with any degree of accuracy what proportion of the teachers' licenses of the country are issued by these respective classes of authority, but I have no doubt that a very large part, probably four-fifths of them, are by county, district, city, or town officials. In many cases where licenses are issued by State authorities they are predicated upon the action of local boards or officers. In most cases these local officials are elected by popular vote, although in one or two States they are chosen by the school trustees in their respective jurisdictions, and in one or two other cases they are appointed by State boards. Ordinarily they are not required to show that they themselves possess qualifications for determining the qualifications of others. They do not follow any systematic or open-handed procedure, except in cases when a capable man with a stiff backbone establishes one for himself. Frequently they are incapable of holding examinations. In other cases the forms of an examination are gone through with, but it is only a show and farce in fact. The opportunities for corruption are open, and instances thereof are not unknown. In both the cities and the country it not unfrequently happens that the educational system offends and insults honest womanhood by putting it at the mercy of an ignorant boor or a conscienceless political time-server, who has the unlimited power to grant or refuse a license to teach in the public schools.

It must be borne in mind also that every local officer, capable or incapable, good or bad, is subject to all manner of personal or political influences, which will compel him to prostitute his official action to their advantage, or which will at once set about taking off his official head; and one selfish, scheming, active man, having a grievance to redress, can do more to tear down a school officer in a day than a hundred well-meaning but indifferent men will do to uphold him in a month.

Not losing sight of the fact that in some parts of the country there are better arrangements than in others, and that in one or two cases there may be a plan in operation against which there is not so much to be said, it is submitted that in general we have in this country no proper systems for determining the qualifications of teachers; that there are no adequate safeguards against the issuance of certificates to persons having neither the intellectual qualifications, the moral fitness, nor the practical common sense essential in an instructor of youth. Where this is not the case the fact is not due to any system which prevents its being so, but to the superior intelligence of the people of the locality or to the fact that in some places intelligence has a way of making itself felt in public affairs to an extent much greater than in others. This is not to be relied upon generally.

The educational problem in the United States is continually becoming more and more difficult. Our population is advancing rapidly, and the accretions are not in all cases desirable. Wealth is accumulating in places to an astonishing extent, while extreme poverty is more prevalent and more biting than ever in other places; we have yet no adequate system for compelling attendance upon the schools, and our uneducated class is not getting smaller; blind partisanship, jealous of power for selfish purposes, yields nothing which it can hold and clutches at opportunities to name teachers and put the millions which go for teachers' wages to personal or political advantage. I see no reason to expect that this state of affairs will grow better. Indeed, it may be expected to grow more and more troublesome and difficult to deal with.

The full and permanent success of our republican form of government, however, depends upon a school system which shall meet this situation fully and squarely, and which shall be established upon so firm a foundation, that it will be able to cope successfully with the situation of the future, no matter how troublesome or difficult it may become. Such a school establishment must be an entirely different affair from the one we have employed in the earlier development of the Republic. It can result only from more general governmental aid and more direct and complete governmental control of the schools.

Fully aware that I am now trenching upon contested ground, I must be allowed to apparently digress and expand a little in order to sustain my conclusions.

The history of schools in America is practically contemporaneous with the history of the settlement of the country by the whites. The first settlers came with no idea of living in barbarism. In their heads and hearts they brought schools and churches, and they set them up when they did their homes. From then till now, wherever there has grown up an accumulation of people, there has been enough of intellectual and Christian progress to follow the noteworthy early example. Schools have always come directly from the people, they have sprung up whenever and wherever there has been any settled gathering of the people, and they have been largely supported and managed by localities.

It is an accepted doctrine in this country that governments shall exercise only such powers as are necessary to attain the ends of government, that the General Government shall not trench upon the prerogatives of the States, and that the States shall not undertake to control affairs which may be left to localities. In view of this common doctrine, of the fact that local assemblages have always originated and managed schools, and of the esteem in which education is held throughout the country, it is not strange that the people do not look with equanimity upon too much interference with their school affairs from a distance.

But notwithstanding this, it is vital that there shall be enough of governmental support and governmental direction in all school affairs

to insure the accomplishment of the purpose for which schools are maintained. The changed conditions consequent upon the heterogeneous character of our largely increased population and the fact that that population is so accumulating in mighty cities, and so rapidly covering our widely expanded territory, are such as to necessitate more aid and stronger management than in the early days, if the object for which schools are maintained is to be attained.

Furthermore, schools are maintained for a different object than in the early days. Then, schools were operated for the good of the child; now, for the safety of the State. Then, schools were maintained by persons having children at their own expense, and only for the benefit of their own children, or by the philanthropically disposed people as a charity offering to the poor; now, they are maintained by the entire people at general cost for the conservation of interests which are common to all. In other words, we have come to learn, in the course of time, by reason of changed circumstances and in the light of experience, that we must not only have schools, but that we must have a comprehensive, harmonious, and progressive system of schools. We have come to know that individual schools, subject to the precarious support and the uncertain management of localities, in their own way, no matter whether that way is a good one or a bad one, are not enough. By almost common consent, in our generation, there must be firmly established a general system of education, which shall be adequately supported and wisely directed everywhere; which shall be free to all as a common right and without any taint or smack of charity about it; which will be certain to educate not only some but all of the people, and not only to educate them, but to do so in a way which will insure good citizenship. Such a system has come to be generally and proudly recognized as a distinguishing American institution, essential to the stability and perpetuity of our manner of government. That such a system can rest upon a sure foundation only when largely supported and directed from common centres and by governmental authority, and that it will be so to a much larger degree in the future than it is now, is another principle which has not been so readily or generously recognized, but it is, I am confident, none the less sound and true.

Our governmental organism is such, that the duty of seeing to it that such a system is so maintained and directed is one which falls upon the several States. It is not so decreed in the Constitution; that of the Federal Government makes no mention whatever of the matter. Indeed our present views upon the subject have been formed since most of the constitutions were made. But it is so in law and in fact, it is so in the common understanding and at the common desire of thoughtful people, and from the necessities of the case.

If States may rightfully take charge of a general educational system among their people to some extent, and it is unnecessary to argue that they may for they have been doing so for a long time and without hav-

ing the right questioned, then they may and must do so to an extent sufficient to accomplish the end for which an educational system is maintained. Educational progress in America must necessarily be along general lines, and as the result of general and systematic action; it can not be left dependent upon the uncertain course of localities, and States must more thoroughly and effectually supervise and direct school affairs in the future than in the past if they would make sure of universal education of such a kind and character as will turn out good citizenship, and promote the well-being of the State, to an extent which will justify general taxation for the support of schools. The continually changing circumstances in this country, the fact that educational interests must contend with more difficult conditions now than heretofore, and must expect to contend with still more difficult conditions hereafter than now, taken in connection with the new theories upon which our young system of free and general education is based, all call for more liberal State aid, and more vital State control and supervision than heretofore, and all point to the fact that this will be so to a greater and still greater extent as the population continues to increase, and as the circumstances of the people become more and more diverse and extreme.

It follows then that the qualifications of teachers in the public schools should be determined under the supervision and control of State authorities acting pursuant to general and well known regulations. The matter should never be left to their unrestricted and unguided action, and much less should it to the unguided action of boards of education or superintendents in the cities, or of commissioners in the country.

If experience has taught anything it is that normal training is necessary to the equipment of a good teacher. If all of our teachers could be required to secure their certificate only at the end of a regular course of professional work in a normal school, maintained and directed by the State, it would be well; but that is clearly impracticable. We have all learned before now not only that the need for new teachers far exceeds the ability of the normal schools to supply them, but also that the body of teachers in the country schools who only expect to make teaching a temporary makeshift or stepping-stone to something else, will not, and in most cases can not, incur the expense involved in taking a course at a normal school when the only return for the investment will be the privilege of teaching, if they can secure employment, for miserable pay, with the certainty of being displaced in a little time to make way for the favorite of a newly-elected trustee, who comes into office with the idea that the one thing for which he was chosen was to turn out the old teacher and put in a new one.

If teachers could be licensed directly and exclusively by State boards or State superintendents, pursuant to stated and public examinations, governed by published regulations, the work would be undoubtedly well done, and the interests of the school system would unquestionably be protected. But it seems to me that it is better, and more in accord-

ance with the ideas of government to which we have been schooled, for States to control and direct the matter through local officers than exclusively through officials so far removed from the people. In any event I will clearly say that I have no idea that better results would be attained through State than through local officials, except in so far as the former are more prominently before the public and more directly responsible to public sentiment than the latter. What is necessary in both cases is that the official, whatever his grade or station, shall be the agent of and be made to carry out a *system*, rather than left to his own judgment or caprice. If you say this is a degraded estimate of official capacity and official integrity, I answer that it may be so, and that in many cases it would unquestionably be unjust. I do not base my proposition so much upon my general estimate of official capacity and integrity, for I think better of those qualities in public life than would be apparent from my observations in this connection, but I predicate it more upon my knowledge of the weakness of unsupported official backbone under our system of popular and frequent elections. The experience of States has shown that the proposition is sound. Examining and licensing teachers by one man or by a small body of men will never have public confidence unless the action is open-handed and above board, governed by a fixed and well-understood system of procedure, which will do away with any likelihood of things being done about which the public do not know. In any event, whether I am right or wrong in my estimate of official integrity, or capacity, or backbone, we had better have the system. Good systems work well, and save a great deal of wear and tear upon men. There is a possibility of bad or weak men getting into official stations, and even good men go astray now and then.

But I apprehend that there is no State in which the examination and licensing of teachers is conducted by State officers without the help of city, county, or district agents or representatives.

We must then come to the question, How is the State to determine the qualification of teachers over a wide expanse of territory, embracing great cities as well as sparsely settled country, if not through normal schools or State officials directly ?

It may do so through city superintendents or county or district commissioners.

In that case it should make sure that such superintendents or commissioners are themselves able to show proper qualifications, to the end that the examinations may be in competent hands. It may provide that certificates shall be granted only after stated public examinations which shall be conducted, at least in part, in writing. The question papers should previously be presented to and approved by the State board or State superintendent, and kept for the subsequent inspection of any interested person. The answer papers should also be kept on file and subject to the inspection of persons interested, or for review in case of dis-

pute. The examining officers should be given the right to extend an examination, either orally or in writing, to any reasonable extent, and should be permitted to put their standards as high as they please, and to refuse a certificate whenever they see fit; but they should be prohibited from issuing one to any candidate who does not at least attain a prescribed standard of excellence upon the question papers approved by State authority. Now, if, in addition to this, examinations are held simultaneously throughout the State, upon specified days in every month (unless omitted because unnecessary), and if the question papers are first prepared by the State authorities, and forwarded to the local superintendent or commissioner under seal, to be opened only after the class has assembled, and if the answer papers of such candidates as the local examiner approves are forwarded to the State Department for review and approval, the arrangement is still more perfect, for it has the advantage of uniformity throughout the State, and gives the certificate current value everywhere.

In this way the State does not undertake to say who shall teach in the public schools; but it does say, as it ought to, who shall *not* do so. It establishes a minimum standard of intellectual qualifications, which all must attain. It eliminates favoritism from the problem, it protects the local officials, it puts candidates upon their merits, it helps the capable and the worthy, it gains and holds public confidence in the administration of the schools. Holding the standards of qualifications in its own hands, it can make them low at first, and raise them gradually as circumstances will permit. In this way it can prevent the multiplying of certificates, and the competition among teachers which ordinarily works to the disadvantage of the best, and it can nurture and sustain a teaching profession, and make the vocation a respectable and respected one.

It will be said that there are successful teachers who can not pass written examinations, and that allowance should be made for practical common sense and actual experience. Allowance is to be made for these things, as much allowance as the examiner sees fit to make for them. It is only insisted that a minimum standard shall be attained, which shall be no higher than the circumstances shall indicate to be wise. On the other hand, I should hardly like to admit that the teacher of long experience, who can not pass an examination, is ordinarily as good a teacher as the one of less experience who can. There are, of course, exceptional cases; but we need general rules for the good of all, and they can not be made to meet exceptional cases.

I think I ought to express the opinion here that the authority to determine the qualifications of teachers ought never to be given to the person or board having the power to employ teachers, and that the person or board exercising one power ought never to be dependent upon the person or board possessing the other.

A word as to the certificates: They should be so framed as to con-

form to the examination upon which they are based. They should show upon their face just what they are worth. They should indicate when and where, and upon what subjects the holder was examined, and the standing upon each study covered by the examination. They should be made for a comparatively brief time in the lowest grade, and the time should be lengthened as the grades advance, until the teacher is relieved from all further examination and given a life certificate. This gives teachers something to work for, it stimulates effort all along the line, it aids the most worthy, and secures and holds for the school system the best and most experienced. If, in addition to this, it is arranged that the lower-grade certificates shall never be issued to the same person more than a given number of times, that the new-comers must make some progress or go out, an additional incentive to industry is introduced, which will not fail to be effectual.

In conclusion, then, and by way of recapitulation, I lay down the following propositions concerning the determination of qualifications of teachers:

1. The several States should take direct control and supervision of the entire matter.

2. The work should be held to be of a professional nature, and committed only to the hands of persons who have established their qualifications for such a special service.

3. It may properly be performed to some extent through a system of normal schools.

4. When performed by officials they should not be left entirely at their own discretion; but should be made the representative of a system, and should be required to follow general and well-known regulations, so framed as to prevent personal or political considerations from influencing the determination, and make sure that the success of candidates will depend alone upon their merits.

5. The regulations should require that the examinations should be public, and at stated times; that they shall be conducted to a certain extent at least in writing; that such question papers shall be first approved by State authority, and that the answer papers shall be kept on file; that no certificate shall be issued except to candidates who attain a minimum standard of excellence, required by the State; if an emergency arises issue a temporary permit without examination, good until after the next stated examination. I am confident that better results will also be attained if examinations are held simultaneously throughout a State upon questions prepared by State authority, and if the answer papers are forwarded to the State Department to be marked and filed.

6. Blank-books, to be kept by the local superintendent or commissioner, should be provided, which are properly arranged for keeping a record of all of the essential facts connected with the examination of each candidate, which shall be a public record, and at all times subject

to the direction of the State board or the State superintendent, and shall be transmitted by the local superintendent or commissioner to his successor in office.

If, beyond this, it is arranged that certificates shall be arranged to conform to this system, and show the standing of each holder upon each study covered by the examination, and that the grades are so arranged as to require teachers, or make it to their interest, to advance, I am confident that something material will have been done to build up a teaching profession in the United States, and to establish an educational system upon so firm a foundation that it can cope with the future, no matter what that future may have in store for the Republic.

DISCUSSION.

REMARKS BY E. E. HIGBEE,

State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Pennsylvania.

Great difficulties must be met in the effort to ascertain the qualifications of those desiring to enter upon any public vocation. After once entering upon the practical duties of the vocation, the success of the candidate may be regarded the most secure and ready test of qualification.

In the legal profession the lawyer's actual success in practice, his pleas before the judge, his arguments before the jurors, and his wise counsel to parties entering upon any form of litigation or business, form a fair test of his general and specific qualifications for the work of his calling. But all these tests are wanting in reference to the novitiate who has had no professional experience. Hence it has been found necessary among lawyers to guard with great care against the danger of incompetency, by testing the qualifications of those becoming students at law, as well as of those who wish to be admitted to the bar as actual practitioners. The same is the case with other professions. The physician must have his well-attested credentials before entering upon his professional work, so also the clergyman, and so also the teacher.

There are three classes of teachers whose qualifications are to be ascertained through the test of examinations, or close, critical inspections: First, that large body of candidates who have had no practical experience in teaching; second, those candidates who have had some professional experience, and desire to have their advanced professional skill properly and officially recognized; and third, those that are in our normal schools, fitting themselves by specific professional studies and practice for their chosen calling.

The first offers the most difficulties. All the examinations in either class must be by State authority, and under proper legal regulations and limitations. But in the case of the first class of candidates, inasmuch as no data of professional experience can come into view, the ex-

amination must chiefly concern itself with scholastic attainments and personal character, and should be as rigid and sifting as the conditions and the locality will allow. It has generally been found most convenient to adopt the county divisions of a State already definitely fixed, and commission a qualified superintendent of each county to conduct these examinations under certain clearly defined limits; namely, that the established minimum course of studies must be thoroughly taken up by the examined, that no study whatever should be taught by any teacher who has not been examined therein, and that proper notice be given of the examinations, that the school boards may be present if so desiring.

The certificate based upon such an examination must be a provisional one. The examinations discover a fair knowledge of the branches embraced in the State curriculum, a good degree of general information, a spirit of studious inquiry, an earnestness of moral character, and a dawning sense of professional responsibility, but nothing more. As yet it can not be said with any positiveness that he will prove a successful teacher without this important proviso, that, if he carry into the ethical work of the school-room the application of his attainments and general culture of life, he will become a good professional teacher. The certificate, from the very circumstances of the case, must be provisional, and valid only for a brief period, a period never longer than one year. The certificate should be within the full jurisdiction of the commissioned county superintendent, excepting the limitations already referred to. If occasion arises from serious complaints, or the discovery of great defect in administration, or otherwise by means of critical inspection, the superintendent should have power to annul the certificate; or if the school directors discover moral incompetency, they should exercise the right of jurisdiction, and dismiss the teacher.

With a fixed curriculum there is no advantage to be gained by the State superintendent formulating the questions which the county superintendents should use, and filing away in his office the questions and answers of such a tentative work as that relating to a provisional certificate. It may be thought that in the rejection of candidates injustice may sometimes be done, and that there should be the right of appeal. By opening this door, in all probability the poorer class of candidates would be a source of continual worriment to all concerned, and lower the whole character of the examinations. The effort should be to elevate the necessary requirements of the county superintendent, to guard against the possibility of his selfish use of his office.

In regard to the second class, everything must depend upon the close and critical inspection of the schools to know whether the teacher is worthy to be advanced to the grade of a professional teacher. His whole system of work, and his influence for good in awakening studious habits among the children, the power of his personal presence in the school-room, must come under inspection close and frequent, and if all this be satisfactory, he can safely pass beyond the ranks of a provisional

teacher. The judge of all this must be the inspector himself, assisted by what he may gain from the best educated men of the community whose judgment may be of value. Beyond this the direct jurisdiction of the county superintendent should not extend. A new body of examiners should now enter the field to give the last certificate which claims permanency. The county superintendent and school directors, however, prepare the way for this, and their preparatory indorsement of the candidate for the higher examination should be made an obligation of law. This new committee of examiners, while within the county, should not have sole jurisdiction. The whole work should be submitted to the highest authority of the State, which should now come in and review the whole case before giving what may be termed a permanent commission to teach.

The third is a very distinct class, and there are very many elements to help in ascertaining qualifications. The school itself, which as a State normal school is subject to State supervision in its whole work; the frequent tests which the teachers of these schools have applied, and the examination by State authority of all candidates for graduation help. Yet even with all these, no higher grade of certificate can be given with any degree of safety than that of good scholarship in the branches of study, a fair knowledge of the philosophy and history of education, and a careful study and practice of methods in the model school. Not yet can we say what power may be shown when the actual school-room is entered, when the solemn relation of teacher and taught is pressed upon the consciousness, when mind meets mind and will meets will, and soul looks into soul—deep answering to deep. So even here the certificate should not have permanent validity beyond what it certifies to. It must be limited until full professional success warrants the closing diploma which makes the page a belted knight, now ready to enter the lists as one whose mettle has been fully tried.

The discussion was continued by ex-County Superintendent W. W. WOODRUFF, of Newtown, Pa. It is easy to formulate a system, but the difficulty is to get proper men to work it wisely. The county superintendent in Pennsylvania is elected by the school officers of the towns, and holds office three years. He has great power, and is brought, in the examinations of teachers, in personal contact with them. Written examinations are not entirely satisfactory. Many can answer in words accurately, and yet have no adequate comprehension of the subject. The examiner should have more time for the proper examination of teachers.

State Superintendent D. L. KIEHL, of Minnesota, followed in this discussion. The duty of the State to tax its property for the support of popular education is the basis of the law requiring every parent to send his children to school. The obligation laid upon the tax-payer and the parent imply the corresponding obligation on the part of the State to guarantee that the money of the State shall be expended for the sup-

port of competent instruction for the children of the State. This means that the State should see to it that some effectual method of certifying teachers should be provided by the State. The general and governing principles should be agreed upon here. The details and adaptation in methods and machinery must be left to the several States.

R. K. BUEHRLE, city superintendent of Lancaster, Pa., explained the nature of the permanent certificate in the Keystone State. After a teacher gets a professional certificate and recommendations from boards of directors, where she has taught during the three preceding years, and recommendations of the superintendents under whom she has taught for two years, she can go before a county committee of five teachers, all of whom must hold high-grade certificates, and be examined in the several branches. Her answers to a written series of examination questions are submitted to the State superintendent, and if satisfactory she is granted a permanent certificate.

NORMAL SCHOOLS.

ARE THE NORMAL SCHOOLS, AS THEY EXIST IN OUR SEVERAL STATES, ADEQUATE TO ACCOMPLISH THE WORK FOR WHICH THEY WERE ESTABLISHED?

BY HON. JAMES P. WICKERSHAM,

Ex-State Superintendent of Public Instruction of Pennsylvania.

The task assigned me by the president of this body is, in few words, to answer the question, Are the normal schools, as they exist in our several States, adequate to accomplish the end for which they were established?

As preliminary to an intelligent answer to this question, it is necessary to possess, at least a general knowledge of the history and present condition of our normal schools. The first public normal school in the United States, it is generally understood, was established at Lexington, Mass., in the year 1839. The model school, now the Girl's Normal School of the City of Philadelphia, was, however, of an earlier date, having been established under an act of the Legislature in 1818, expressly for the training of teachers; or, in the exact words of the law, "in order to qualify teachers for the sectional schools of the city and for schools in other parts of the State."

Prior to either of these beginnings, too, it may be well to note that there were many efforts in different parts of the country to prepare teachers for their work in departments of colleges and in academies and private schools. For example, the University of Pennsylvania, established as early as 1749, according to Dr. Franklin, one of its principal projectors, was in part intended to furnish a supply of "school-masters," such, as he says, who are "of good morals and known character" and can "teach children reading, writing, arithmetic, and the grammar of their mother tongue."

Late as it was when the work began, progress in founding public normal schools was at first very slow. In 1850 there were but six such schools in the whole country, three in Massachusetts, one in Connecticut, one in New York, and one in Pennsylvania. From that date, however, and especially since the close of our great Civil War, public normal schools have sprung up with great rapidity, only two or three of the States now being without institutions of this character. The most complete statistics of these schools I have at command are those con-

tained in the Report of the Commissioner of Education for the year 1884-85. In this report the number of public normal schools in all the States and Territories is stated to be 131, the number of students 32,130, the appropriations received from States, counties, and cities over \$1,000,000, and the value of the property belonging to the schools, 7,071,990. It is known that there are a few private normal schools included with the public ones in these statistics, but the statement is sufficiently accurate for the purposes of this paper, showing, as it does, that the recent growth of this form of instruction has been most wonderful.

The general object proposed by all normal schools is the instruction and training of teachers; but the laws establishing and regulating them materially differ, and the schools themselves exhibit great variety in organization, in management, and in methods of teaching. Many have model or training schools connected with them, for the purpose of giving practical instruction in the art of teaching, but there are some that seem to attach little or no value to an auxiliary of this character. Nearly all give more or less special professional instruction in the science and art of education, but a few confine themselves wholly or almost wholly to the work of imparting knowledge in the ordinary branches of an academic or high school course. The students at a majority of the schools are all preparing to become teachers, but schools can be found where a considerable proportion of them are looking forward to some other profession or line of business. As a rule, some standard of scholastic qualifications is required for entrance, but schools can be named that welcome to a place in their classes all who come, with little regard to age, scholarship, or fitness.

In view of the short length of time the normal schools of the country have been in existence, and their consequent immaturity; in view of their differences in organization, their rapid growth, and the diversity of the conditions by which they are surrounded and in which they operate, it is plain that, taking things as they are, I must answer the question assigned me in the negative, and acknowledge that our normal schools have not as yet accomplished the end for which they were established. But such an answer, based on such ground, would be unjust to the schools, unjust to the teachers and friends of education who were instrumental in establishing them, and unjust to the States and cities whose money has been largely expended for their support. Normal schools, like all other great institutions, must have time to grow. They are the result of forces that work slowly, and are constantly impeded in their development by obstacles that time and long-continued effort alone can remove. Besides, no doubt, in submitting the question to me, I was expected to take a broader view of it—to assume, in fact, that our normal schools are all they are capable of becoming, full grown and completely equipped, manned and organized under the laws by which they were established. Slightly modifying the ques-

tion to meet this conception of it, it would read: "Are the normal schools, as they exist in the several States," capable *when fully developed* of accomplishing "the end for which they were established?" In this form the question is a very grave one, and its answer must necessarily touch the very foundation stones of the teachers' profession and of our system of public education.

If the end aimed at by the several States in establishing normal schools was to secure special professional training for all the teachers in the country, what has been done is entirely inadequate to the purpose. There is not a single State in the Union the graduates of whose normal schools in any one year can fill one-fifth, most likely not one-eighth, of the vacancies in the schools for that year. Pennsylvania is probably as well supplied with normal schools as any of her sister States. Excluding the city of Philadelphia, she has eleven large normal schools in full operation. Their graduates for 1887 numbered in all 434, while at least 4,000 teachers left the profession in that year. Of the 21,020 teachers employed in the schools of the State outside of Philadelphia in 1886, only 1,532 were reputed as having graduated at a State normal school, and only 4,342 as having attended one for a longer or shorter length of time. These figures show that only a little more than one-fourteenth of the teachers of the State are graduates of a normal school, and only a little more than one-fifth of them ever received any instruction in such a school. Pennsylvania would therefore have to increase her normal schools by many times their present number in order to place a trained teacher in every one of her schools; and this, I take it, is simply impossible. The facts in this matter, as they exist in Pennsylvania, will be found to exist substantially in every other State of the Union. The proportionate number of normally trained teachers may be greater in a few States; it is certainly smaller in the majority.

There is not a single one of our States that can place, by her present system of normal school, or by any other means now at her command, a well trained, thoroughly instructed teacher in every one of her public schools. It is a good end at which to aim, but its attainment is at present beyond our reach. Our school terms are too short, the salaries we pay are too small, the fluctuations of American life are too frequent and too violent to render such a result possible. In certain European countries it is approximately done, but the conditions are very unlike those which exist in this country. I speak of States. In cities the case is different. With the constant employment offered teachers in most of our cities and the fair salaries paid them, one or more good training schools may be able to supply professionally qualified teachers as fast as there is a demand for them.

It may as well be admitted also that the best of normal schools can not make good teachers of all who may choose to enter them. Even a certain percentage of their graduates, those for whom they have put forth their greatest efforts, will fail when they come to submit their qualifi-

cations to a practical test. And, further, great teachers are not made in normal schools. Like poets, they are born. The power possessed by a Fénelon, an Arnold, a Pestalozzi, or a Fröbel to form the character and shape the life of the young, to plant seeds of good in the tender human soul and quicken its aspirations for all that is true and noble, comes not from the hands of man, however skilful; it is God-given. It is doubtful, indeed, whether such teachers as those named would have profited by the instruction of a normal school. Something of originality, something of the spontaneous outbursting of that rare talent for governing and directing the intellectual and moral growth of a child which they possessed might have been lost in the effort to find and follow positive principles and fixed methods.

There are good teachers, then, who have never been inside of the walls of a normal school; and there are normal school graduates who prove failures when tested by school-room experience. Much may reasonably be expected in the work of training teachers from the normal schools, but not too much. If they were established with the expectation that all who may enjoy their advantages can be made good teachers, there must be disappointment, for this is an end entirely beyond their power to accomplish.

But what are the normal schools established by the several States, when fully organized and developed, able to do? We have named certain things they can not do; it is time to state what they can do. They are able, from the numbers that attend them, to instruct, train, and inspire with professional zeal a body of teachers who, when scattered over a State, will, as principles of high schools, as superintendents of schools, as writers in educational journals, as instructors at teachers' institutes, as leaders in educational reform, become a powerful agency in uplifting and making more efficient the whole work of education. Every well-organized normal school in the country is a centre from which such teachers go forth, leavening the lifeless work which in so many of our schools is miscalled instruction, quickening the long dormant teaching power of whole communities of teachers, becoming pillars of cloud by day and pillars of fire by night to guide the generations in the performance of the highest duty God has left in their hands, the education of their children. The normal schools can become the fountain of professional *esprit de corps* among the teachers of a State, they can furnish the tie that will bind in unity the whole teachers' brotherhood, they can form of teachers a compact army with a common object, well officered and ready for service, instead of the multitudes who now waste their strength and skill in school-rooms as individuals or in scattered detachments.

The normal schools as now established are capable of doing even more than we have claimed for them. With the few they send forth to occupy the high places in the teachers' profession, to become leaders in the work of education, they can with them prepare much larger num-

bers for the every-day duties of the school-room. Officers are indispensable, but good soldiers are also needed in the ranks and files. As has been said, the normal schools, as they exist to-day, can not furnish all the teachers necessary to supply our schools, but they can furnish teachers whose example in all grades of schools, in low places as well as in high ones, will greatly improve, if not entirely reform, the teaching of whole cities and States. I have seen and who has not?—the methods and spirit of a modest teacher in a primary school spread out to all the schools of a neighborhood, introducing into them a new life and lifting them up to a higher level. The normal schools should multiply such teachers, until, like the stars that brighten the sky, the whole land shall be full of them.

More than anywhere else skilled teachers are needed in our primary schools. How best to educate a little child still remains the hardest of educational problems; and, when solved theoretically, the actual work of conducting the process in the school-room will require an artist of the highest order. In this field our normal schools, as they ought to be, should win their greatest triumphs, and do most for the common good of the people who have established and continue to support them.

These are the ends which the normal schools, as they exist in the several States, may be made to accomplish. If, then, they were established for these ends and for nothing beyond them, they are adequate to their purpose, and the question submitted to me is answered in the affirmative.

DISCUSSION.

REMARKS BY HON. J. W. DICKINSON,

Secretary of the Massachusetts State Board of Education.

Mr. James G. Carter, of Lancaster, Mass., was the first to call public attention to the necessity and advantages of normal schools.

The cause of his efforts was to be found in the very low condition of the public schools of his time, and in a want of proper preparation of the teachers for the duties of their office. Governor Lincoln, in his inaugural address delivered before the Massachusetts Legislature in 1827, said, "I would be unfaithful to duty if I failed to advert to the adoption of measures for the preparation and better qualification of teachers of youth."

The wants of the community in this respect are unquestionably great, and with a growing population will be continually increasing.

The cause of learning languishes both from the paucity and incompetency of instructors.

To supply the acknowledged deficiency it has heretofore been proposed to offer encouragement to an institution in which arrangements shall be made for the application of *practical* education and the cultivation of

practical talent in the art of governing and of communicating instruction.

At the meeting of the American Institute of Instruction, held in Boston in 1836, the following resolutions were adopted :

Resolved, That the business of teaching should be performed by those who have studied the subject of instruction as a profession. Therefore,

Resolved, That there ought to be at least one seminary in each State devoted exclusively to the education of teachers; and that this seminary should be authorized to confer degrees.

The first normal school in this country was opened at the old town of Lexington, July 3, 1839.

It was founded for the purpose of giving scientific instruction to those persons who were to be teachers in the public schools of the Commonwealth. This instruction would naturally direct attention to the philosophy of teaching rather than to a knowledge of the branches to be taught, and to the philosophy of governing so as to produce the power of self-control rather than to secure nothing beyond what is generally understood by good order.

The Legislature placed the government of the normal school entirely in the hands of the board of education.

The board was without experience in the management of such institutions. They were in doubt concerning the standard to be fixed for admission to the school, the course of studies to be pursued, the length of time to be given for its completion, and the standard for graduation.

No candidates asking for admission could be found who were prepared to pass a satisfactory examination in the common English branches of study, much less to enter at once upon a professional course of instruction for teaching.

The schools were compelled to take those who asked to be taken, and to put them over an academical course of instruction before a professional course was possible. There has always been a complaint that the normal schools spend too much time in academical work and too little in that which may properly be called professional. The criticism has a foundation in fact, though it may sometimes be over severe, for in my experience I have never known a candidate for admission to the normal classes to be fully provided with the elementary knowledge he is expected to be able to communicate when he takes up his work in the public schools.

The present entering classes of the normal schools are better prepared for a professional course of study than were those of former times. This will relieve from much academical work which has hitherto been required in connection with professional study. We may expect that the public schools will some time become so good that their graduates may enter our teachers' seminaries fitted to enter at once upon professional study.

When the normal graduate enters the public school as a teacher he should be prepared to direct his pupils to the accomplishment of four ends:

1. To acquiring knowledge.
2. To learning a method of using his faculties.
3. To securing their right development.
4. To behaving well on all occasions.

If this is true, the work in the normal schools should consist of those exercises that will have a tendency to give to their pupil teachers this directing power. That such a result may follow a course of training in the normal schools, some favorable conditions must exist. The pupils who enter the normal classes must be of good original material. They must have sound bodies, strong minds, and good hearts. They must also be prepared to pass a satisfactory examination in the branches of learning that are required to be taught in the public schools. The public school studies should be included in the normal course of instruction, and they should be taken up in order—for the purpose of obtaining more philosophical ideas, for making a list of topics on each—such as will present the different subjects in the best manner for teaching and study, for the best means of illustrating the topics, and for an opportunity to acquire some skill in teaching them to others.

These topics should be objects of careful study, so that the philosophy of their selection and arrangement may be discovered.

The class exercises of the normal schools should be divided into two parts.

One should consist of a review by the class of the previous lesson taught by the regular teacher, and it should be conducted in accordance with the same method employed in his teaching. The effect of presenting the topics by teaching them will be the acquisition of skill in contriving means of illustration—in handling the means before the class, and in directing the minds of others to an independent investigation for knowledge, and to that sort of activity which produces a good training of the mind, such as may always be produced by good methods of teaching, never by simply introducing new topics of study.

The other part of the recitation, however, should be devoted to presenting an advanced lesson by the regular teacher of the class.

Its immediate object is to provide the pupil teachers with a set of advance topics, with proper means of illustrating them and with a method of study all of which may then be intelligently used in a preparation by the class for the next review. It should not be forgotten that true teaching consists in simply directing the learner in his investigations and encouraging him to use his strength in the exercise. All lessons in the course should be taken up in this way, and with special reference to teaching the same in the public schools.

The lecture method in normal instruction is a vicious one, and for two reasons. It presents the wrong occasions for knowledge and for

skill in independent discovery of the truth, and it furnishes no opportunity for practice in teaching. In the second year of the normal course the pupil teacher will be prepared to turn his attention to the principles of teaching, and to a philosophical study of the method founded upon them.

This introduces the study of the mind, for a knowledge of the laws that control it in the acquisition of knowledge, and of that facility in the exercise of its faculties which we call mental discipline.

It will now appear that the conditions which limit the mind in learning require use of the objective analytic method of teaching. It will also appear that the conditions of mental development require self-activity on appropriate objects presented by the same objective method.

It has been found that theoretical knowledge is not enough to insure success in teaching. No one can be sure that he has a true theory, even if he has obtained it abstracted from practice in teaching children of such ages and states of mind as are found in the public schools.

It seems to be necessary for the teachers of the normal schools to keep themselves familiar with the work of the public schools.

An exclusive study of principles is apt to lead the student away from the consideration of those realities that present themselves as soon as he is brought into contact with a school of children—a school he is himself to organize, teach, and control by an exercise of his own learning, skill, and judgment.

Every normal school should include in its organization a practice school, in which the normal pupils may acquire skill and experience in teaching and controlling. Their knowledge of methods should guide them in every phase of their work.

They need not now teach at random without knowing beforehand what is to come of it. If they teach and govern with reference to communicating that self-control which is the great end to be secured by all intellectual and moral activity, when they go from their training-schools to the public schools it will appear that they already have had a successful experience.

The exercises in the practice classes should always be under the direction of skilled teachers and subject to their intelligent criticism. This will prevent the formation of bad habits, which, when once formed, hold one in their relentless grasp forever. Before leaving the normal school the student should become familiar with constructing courses of studies and with the history of education, that the experiences of the past may throw their light on the future, and that methods which have been tried, found wanting, and abandoned, may never again reappear to confuse the schools and divert them from the great ends they should all endeavor to secure.

The schools and the teachers need more personal direction and preparation for their work; we must not rely too much on machinery in educational affairs.

REMARKS BY JEROME ALLEN, PH. D.,

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NORMAL WORK AND ACADEMIC WORK SHOULD BE SEPARATED.

All normal school work is based on two assumptions: First, there is a science of teaching; it must be known. Second, there is an art of teaching, and it can be taught. It is said by some teachers that there is no science in education. If this is true, then there is no art in it, and therefore the true teacher is not an artist. But the true teacher is an artist, and if an artist, he must be either knowingly or intuitively a scientist. A science comes from admitted principles, orderly arranged, so as to point to certain conclusions and give a basis for certain practical applications. These applications are of as great importance as the usefulness of the science.

All normal school work in this country has been hampered by academic work. This is a historical as well as a present fact, and has been supposed to be a necessity. Let us see if it is! It is necessary to know how to teach the principles of arithmetic in order to teach the art of teaching arithmetic; in other words, we must know arithmetical facts before we know how to make others know those facts. Teaching is the art of causing another to know. If I have been made to know a certain thing, can I not at once make another know it, and, after all, is there anything in teaching but knowing the facts; in other words, is anything more necessary in normal work than to be taught well and practice in teaching well under good artists? *There is more*, for one may know, and not be able to make another know. It is necessary to know facts before we can make another know those facts, therefore academic work is first and indispensable. But it is not necessary that academic work should be done at the same time normal work is done. On the other hand, it is better that a normal pupil should know the facts of a study *some time* before he learns how to teach that study. The study of a new subject and the study of how to teach that subject are entirely different things, and if pursued at the same time are very liable to lead to confusion. They will confuse those who have not good minds. This is a most important truth, and it is for this reason that so much of our present normal work is partially if not totally a failure. We mix things that ought not to be mixed, and the mixing process is terribly confusing to immature learners. Girls are trying to teach young children—practising on what they know nothing about. Because they have learned to read, write, spell, and have memorized a few facts in geography and history it is concluded that they are prepared to know how to practise. In intellect they are only a few grades above those whom they are attempting to teach; in knowledge, excepting a little that is elementary, they are ignorant. Of the nature and growth of the mind, the history of education, the science of method, and the art of touching the springs of in-

fluence, they are also ignorant. The whole work of a true normal school is yet untouched by them; yet they are admitted into the practice classes of our best normal schools to try what they can do with little children. It needs no argument to prove that this is wrong.

The little child demands the most scientific treatment. No man dare deny this fact, but by admitting it we condemn a large part of normal work now being done. But you say we can not help it. That is not the question before us. It is, Are normal schools doing their appropriate work for which they were founded? This question must be answered in the negative. They may be doing all that in the way they are constituted they can do, but this does not prove that they could not be constituted differently. The work for which they were established is for the purpose of training teachers to be able to teach, *not for the purpose of filling the minds of those who attend them full of useful knowledge, nor even for training the mind of teachers to think for themselves.* If this were their object, they would have no excuse for living. High schools existed before normal schools, and if the aim of a normal school by and by is found to be the same as the high school, the high school will live, and the real normal school will continue to be, like Plato's republic, an ideal creation.

But is it necessary that the ideal normal school should continue to be ideal? Could it not be realized to-day? Ought it not to be realized to-day? It should be, and that right soon. We are learning more and more concerning the nature of the human mind—its growth and operations. We are learning more and more how to adapt educational processes to individual needs. The history of education is more acceptable to the mass of teachers than ever before, and we have more opportunities for practice work than ever before. Manual training has come to be recognized as a necessity in all elementary schools, except by a few whose heads are so hard that it is an amusement for them to butt them against the car of progress. All recognize that the present school system is only a germ of what it will be when the thoughts of the immortal thinkers since the revival of learning become accepted as sound philosophy and common sense. The day is auspicious; and in this day the real normal schools now largely ideal will be a reality, despite those who are frantically crying out for the slow coach of the fathers in place of educational electricity and steam—the light and heat of the present.

Dr. EDWARD BROOKS, of Philadelphia, said that the normal schools have done a vast amount of good. Many of our representative educators have had their training at these schools. They have raised the ideal of the artistic teacher.

Prof. A. G. BOYDEN, of Bridgewater, Mass., said the aim of the normal schools was to prepare teachers. They are to be thoroughly educated for their special work. The teacher must have a definite, distinct knowledge of the minds of children individually, and adapt his work to the wants of the child's life. We are to teach the children, using the

course of study as a means to this end. We should strive to use these means so as to fit the child for a good citizen in the varied walks of life. One of the difficulties is that the normal schools have not now a full supply of the very best material out of which to make good teachers. Public sentiment must be created to secure appliances and proper appropriations. The normal schools need the aid and confidence of the communities. They are growing and are accomplishing their work, but have not yet reached the highest ideal of the friends of these schools. He alluded to the criticism that these schools are not doing normal work. We must, as teachers of normal schools, take such persons as we can secure and fit them for educational work as best we can. As the public schools supply better educated material, then the normal schools can confine their work to teaching only.

MORAL TRAINING.

MORAL EDUCATION IN THE COMMON SCHOOLS.

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The separation of church and state is an acknowledged principle in our National Government, and its interpretation from generation to generation eliminates with more and more of strictness whatever ceremonies and observances of a religious character still remain attached to secular customs and usages.

Inasmuch as religion, in its definition of what is to be regarded as divine, at the same time furnishes the ultimate and supreme ground of all obligations, it stands in the closest relations to morality, which we may define as the system of duties or obligations that govern the relation of man to himself as individual and as race or social whole.

To the thinking observer nothing can be more obvious than the fact that the institutions of society are created and sustained by the moral activity of man.

The moral training of the young is essential to the preservation of civilization. The so called fabric of society is woven out of moral distinctions and observances. The network of habits and usages which makes social combination possible—which enables men to live together as a community—constitutes an ethical system. In that ethical system only is spiritual life possible. Without such a system even the lowest stage of society—that of the mere savage even—could not exist. In proportion to the completeness of development of its ethical system a community rises above barbarism.

It is quite clear that so deep a change in the principle of human government as the separation of church and state involves the most important consequences to the ethical life of our people.

All thoughtful persons look with solicitude on institutions of an educational character in order to discover what means, if any, can remain for moral education after its ecclesiastical foundation has been removed.

It happens quite naturally that some of the best people in the community struggle to retain the ecclesiastical forms and ceremonies in the secular. They find themselves unable to discriminate between the provinces of morality and religion. With them education in morality means education in performing religious rites. But this view certainly

does not harmonize with the political conviction of our people. From year to year we see the religious rites and ceremonies set aside in the legislature, the town-meeting, the public assembly, the school. If retained they become empty forms with no appreciable effect.

In this state of affairs we might profitably inquire into the principle which permits institutions to be emancipated from the direct control of the church.

Without entering into this question in its details at the present time, we may remark that the history of Christian civilization shows us a continuous spectacle of the development of institutions into independence. It is a sort of training or nurture of institutions by the church into a degree of maturity in which they come to be able to live and thrive without the support of mere ecclesiastical authority.

But an institution attains its majority only when it has become thoroughly grounded on some fundamental divine principle. The state, for instance, is organized on the principle of justice—the return of each man's deed to himself. On such principle the state may be conducted without fear of collision with the church or other institutions.

The school, too, has certain divine principles which it has borrowed from the church through long centuries of tutelage and perhaps can be conducted by itself without church authority and yet be a positive auxiliary to the church and cause of religion.

The school proposes at first this object, to teach the pupil a knowledge of man and nature—in short, to initiate him into the realm of truth.

Certainly truth is divine, and religion itself is chiefly busied with discovering and interpreting the Divine First Principle of the Universe and his personal relations to men. In so far as truth—real truth, in harmony with the personality of God, and not spurious truth—is taught in the school, it is a positive auxiliary to the church and to religion.

But the intellectual pursuit of truth in the school is conditioned upon a deeper principle. Order is the first law, even of Heaven. The government of human beings in a community is a training for them in the forms of social life. The school must strictly enforce a code of laws. The so-called “discipline” of the school is its primordial condition, and is itself a training in habits essential to life in a social whole, and hence is itself moral training. Let us study the relation of school discipline to the development of moral character, and compare its code of duties with the ethical code as a whole.

First let us take an ideal survey of the whole field and see what is desirable before we examine the results of school as actually furnished. One may distinguish moral duties or habits which ought to be taught to youth into three classes:

(a) Mechanical virtues, in which the youth exercises a minimum of moral choice and obeys an external rule prescribed for him. In this, the lowest species of moral discipline, the youth learns self-denial and self-control, and not much besides.

(b) Social duties, those which govern the relation of man to man, and which are the properly called "moral" duties. In this form of moral discipline the youth learns to obey principle rather than the immediate will of another.

(c) Religious duties, or those based on the relation to God as revealed in religion. In these the youth learns the ultimate grounds of obligation and gains both a practical principle for the conduct of life and a theoretic principle on which to base his view of the world. In his religious doctrine man formulates his theory of the origin and destiny of nature and the human race, and at the same time defines his eternal vocation, his fundamental duties. The mere statement of this obvious fact is sufficient to indicate the rank and importance of the religious part of the moral duties.

Turning now to the school, let us take an inventory of its means and appliances for moral education in the line of these several divisions. Let us remember, too, that morality consists in practice rather than in theory and that the school can teach morality only when it trains the will into ethical habits and not when it stops short with inculcating a correct theoretical view of right and wrong, useful as such a view may be.

In the school we note, first, the moral effect of the requirement of implicit obedience; a requirement necessary within the school for its successful administration. The discipline in obedience in its strict form, such as is found in the school-room, has four other applications, which remain valid under all conditions of society:

(a) Obedience towards parents; (b) towards employers, overseers, and supervisors, as regards the details of work; (c) towards the government in its legally constituted authority, civil or military; (d) towards the divine will, howsoever revealed.

In each of these four forms there is and always remains a sphere of greater or less extent, within which implicit obedience is one's duty. In the three first-named this duty is not absolute, but limited; the sphere continually growing narrower with the growth of the individual in wisdom and self-directive power. In the fourth form of obedience to the divine will the individual comes more and more to a personal insight into the necessity of the divine law as revealed in Scripture, in nature, and especially in human life, and through this he is emancipated from the direct personal control of men, even of the wisest and best, and becomes rather a law unto himself. He outgrows mere mechanical obedience, and arrives at a truly moral will in which the law is written on the heart.

Obedience to what is prescribed by authority is obviously a training that fits one for religion, even if religion has no direct part in such training. Hence the school in securing implicit obedience is an auxiliary of the church even when perfectly secular.

The pillars on which school education rest are behavior and schol-

arship. Deportment, or behavior, comes first as the *sine qua non*. The first requisite of the school is order; each pupil must be taught to conform his behavior to the general standard and repress all that interferes with the function of the school. In the outset, therefore, a whole family of virtues are taught the pupil, and taught him so thoroughly that they become fixed in his character. In the mechanical duties habit is everything, and theory little or nothing. The pupil is taught (a) punctuality; he must be at school in time. Sleep, business, play, indisposition—all must give way to the duty of obedience to this external requirement—to observe the particular moment of time and conform to it.

Punctuality does not end with getting to school, but while in school, it is of equal importance. Combination can not be achieved without it. The pupil must have his lessons ready at the appointed time, must rise from his seat at the tap of the bell, move to line, return; in short, he must go through all the evolutions with this observance of rhythm.

(b) Regularity is the next discipline. Regularity is punctuality reduced to a system. Conformity to the requirements of time in a particular instance is punctuality; made general it becomes regularity.

Combination in school rests on these two virtues. They are the most elementary of the moral code—its alphabet, in short.

This age is often called the age of productive industry—the era of emancipation of man from the drudgery of slavery to his natural wants of food, clothing, and shelter. This emancipation is effected by machinery. Machinery has quadrupled the efficiency of human industry within the past half century. There is one general training especially needed to prepare the generations of men who are to act as directors of machinery and managers of the business that depends upon it—this training is in the habits of punctuality and regularity.

Only by obedience to these abstract external laws of time and place may we achieve a social combination complete enough to free us from thralldom to our physical wants and necessities.

(c) Silence is the third of these semi-mechanical duties. It is the basis for the culture of internality or reflection—the soil in which thought grows. The pupil is therefore taught habits of silence; he learns to restrain his natural animal impulse to prate and chatter. All ascent above his animal nature arises through this ability to hold back the mind from utterance of the immediate impulse. The first impression must be corrected by the second. Combination and generalization are required to reach deep and wide truths, and these depend upon this habit of silence.

This silence in the school-room has a twofold significance—it is necessary in order that there may be no distraction of the attention of others from their work; secondly, it is a direct discipline in the art of combining the diffused and feeble efforts of the pupil himself.

These mechanical duties constitute an elementary training in morals without which it is exceedingly difficult to build any superstructure of moral character whatever.

Moral education, therefore, must begin in merely mechanical obedience and develop gradually out of this stage towards that of individual responsibility.

The higher orders of moral duties fall into two classes—those that relate to the individual himself and those that relate to his fellows.

(a) *Duties to self*.—These are (1) physical, and concern cleanliness, neatness in person and clothing, temperance and moderation in the gratification of the animal appetites and passions.

The school can and does teach cleanliness and neatness, but it has less power over the pupil in regard to temperance. It can teach him self-control and self-sacrifice in the three disciplines already named, punctuality, regularity, and silence, and in so far it may free him from thralldom to the body in other respects. It can and does labor efficiently against obscenity and profanity; that is, immorality in language.

(2) *Self-culture*. This duty belongs especially to the school. All of its lessons contribute to the pupil's self-culture. By its discipline it gives him control over himself, and ability to combine with his fellow-men; by its instruction it gives him knowledge of the world of nature and man. This duty corresponds nearly to the one named Prudence in ancient ethical systems. The Christian Fathers discuss four cardinal virtues—temperance, prudence, fortitude, and justice. Prudence places the individual above and beyond his present moment, as it were, letting him stand over himself, watching and directing himself. Man is a twofold being, having a particular, special self and a general nature; his ideal self the possibility of perfection. Self-culture stands for the theoretical or intellectual side of this cardinal virtue of prudence, while industry is its practical side.

(3) *Industry*. This virtue means devotion to one's calling or business. Each one owes it to himself to have some business and to be industrious.

The good school does not tolerate idleness. It has the most efficient means of securing industry from its pupils. Each one has a definite task scrupulously adjusted to his capacity, and he will be held responsible for its performance. Is there any better training yet devised to educate youth into industry and its concomitants of sincerity, earnestness, simplicity, perseverance, patience, faithfulness, and reliability, than the school method of requiring work in definite amounts, at definite times, and of an approved quality?

The pupil has provided for him a business or vocation. By industry and self-sacrifice the pupil is initiated into a third of the cardinal virtues—fortitude.

(b) *Duties to others*.—Duties to self rest on the consciousness of a higher nature in the individual and of the obligation of bringing out and realizing this higher nature. Duties to others recognize this higher ideal nature as something general, and hence as also the true inward self of our fellow-men. This ideal of man we are conscious that we

realize only very imperfectly, and yet it is this fact that we have the possibility of realizing a higher ideal in ourselves that gives us our value above animals and plants. In our fellow-men we see revelations of this ideal nature that we have not yet realized in ourselves. Each one possesses some special gift or quality that helps us know ourselves. The experience of each man is a contribution towards our own self-knowledge and vicariously aids us without our being obliged to pay for it in the pain and suffering that the original experience cost. Inasmuch as our ideal can be realized only through this aid from our fellow-men, the virtues that enable us to combine with others and form institutions precede in importance the mechanical virtues.

There are three classes of duties toward others :

(1) Courtesy, including all forms of politeness, good breeding, urbanity, decorum, modesty, respect for public opinion, liberality, magnanimity, etc., described under various names by Aristotle and others after him. The essence of this virtue consists in the resolution to see in others only the ideal of humanity and to ignore any and all defects that may be apparent.

Courtesy in many of its forms is readily taught in school. Its teaching is often marred by the manner of the teacher, which may be sour and surly, or petulant and fault-finding. The importance of this virtue both to its possessor and to all his fellows demands careful attention on the part of school managers with a view to insure its presence in the school-room.

(2) Justice. This is recognized as the chief in the family of secular virtues. It has several forms or species, as, for example, (a) honesty, fair dealing with others, respect for their rights of person and property and reputation ; (b) truth-telling, or honesty in speech—honesty itself being truth-acting. Such names as integrity, uprightness, righteousness, express further distinctions that belong to this staunch virtue.

Justice, while like courtesy in the fact that it looks upon the ideal of the individual, is unlike courtesy in the fact that it looks upon the deed of the individual in a very strict and business-like way, and measures its defects by that high standard. According to the principle of justice, each one receives in proportion to his deeds and not in proportion to his possibilities, wishes, or unrealized aspirations. All individuals are ideally equal in the essence of their humanity ; but justice will return upon each the equivalent of his deed only. If it be a crime, justice returns it upon the doer as a limitation of his freedom of person or property.

The school is perhaps more effective in teaching the forms of justice than in teaching those of courtesy. Truth-telling especially receives the full emphasis of all the power of school discipline. Every lesson is an exercise in digging out and closely defining the truth, in extending the realm of clearness and certainty further into the region of igno-

rance and guesswork. How careful the pupil is compelled to be with his statements in the recitation and how painstaking in his previous preparation !

Justice in discovering the exact performance of each pupil and giving him recognition for it may give place to injustice in case of carelessness on the part of the teacher. Such carelessness may suffer the weeds of lying and deceit to grow up, and it may allow the pupil to gather the fruits of honesty and truth, and thus it may offer a premium for fraud. The school may thus furnish an immoral education, notwithstanding its great opportunities to inculcate this noble virtue of honesty.

The private individual must not be permitted to return the evil deed upon the doer, for that would be revenge, and hence a new crime. All personality and self-interest must be sifted out before justice can be done to the criminal. Hence we have another virtue belonging to this class which is itself an outgrowth of justice—that of respect for law.

(3) Respect for law, as the only means of protecting the innocent and punishing the guilty, is the complement of justice. It looks upon the ideal as realized not in an individual man, but in an institution represented in the person of an executive officer who is supported with legislative and judicial powers.

The school, when governed by an arbitrary and tyrannical teacher, is a demoralizing influence in a community. The law-abiding virtue is weakened, and a whole troop of lesser virtues take their flight and give admittance to passions and appetites. But the wise and just teacher will teach respect for law very thoroughly, on the other hand. A great change has been wrought in the methods of discipline in later years. It is clear that with frequent and severe corporal punishment it is next to impossible to retain genuine respect for law. Only the very rare teacher can succeed in this. Punishment through the sense of honor has therefore superseded for the most part in our best schools the use of the rod. It is now easy to find the school admirably disciplined and its pupils enthusiastic and law-abiding—governed entirely without the use of corporal punishment.

The school possesses very great advantages over the family in this matter of teaching respect for law. The parent is too near the child, too personal to teach him this lesson.

At this point we approach the province of religious duties. Higher than the properly moral duties, or at least higher than the secular or "cardinal" virtues, are certain ones which are called "celestial" virtues by the theologians. These are faith, hope, and charity, and their special modifications.

The question may arise whether any instruction in these duties can be given which is not at the same time sectarian? An affirmative answer will have to show only that the essential scope of these virtues has a secular meaning and that the secular meaning is more fundamental than in the case of the so called cardinal virtues.

(1) Faith in a theologic sense means the true knowledge of the first principle of the universe. Everybody presupposes some theory or view of the world, its origin and destiny, in all his practical and theoretical dealing with it. Christendom assumes a personal Creator of divine-human nature, who admits man to grace in such a way that he is not destroyed by the results of his essential imperfection, but is redeemed in some special way. The Buddhist and Brahmin think that finitude and imperfection are utterly incompatible with the Divine Being, and hence that the things of the world can not be supposed to have real existence. They exist only in our fancy. Here is no grace, no redemption. Nature is not a real existence to those who hold such a theory, and hence for them there can be no natural science.

In Christian countries the prevailing institutions and confessions of faith recognize this belief in a divine-human God—a God of grace—and their people more or less cultivate science. Some persons theoretically deny this belief, but cling to science, which is itself based on the deep-lying assumption that the world is a manifestation of reason. Such skeptics have not yet measured the consequences of their theories and for our purposes may be said to belong to the faith inasmuch as the reality of a finite world presupposes a personal God whose essential attribute is grace. The agnostic too is strenuous in acknowledging the practical importance of the code of moral duties.

The prevailing view of the world in Christian countries is very properly called faith, inasmuch as it is not a view pieced together from the experience of the senses nor a product of individual reflection unaided by the deep intuitions of the spiritual seers of the race.

Faith is a secular virtue as well as a theological virtue, and whoever teaches another view of the world—that is to say, he who teaches that man is not immortal and that nature does not reveal the divine reason, teaches a doctrine subversive of faith in this peculiar sense and also subversive of man's life in all that makes it worth living.

(2) Hope, the second theological virtue, is the practical side of faith. Faith is not properly the belief in some theory of the world, but in that particular theory of the world which Christianity teaches. So hope is not a mere anticipation of some future event, but the firm expectation that the destiny of the world is in accordance with the scheme of faith, no matter how much present appearances may be against it. Thus the individual acts upon this conviction. It is the basis of the highest practical doing in this world. A teacher may show faith and hope in the views of the world which he expresses and in his dealings with his school—in his teaching of history, in his comments on the reading lessons, in his treatment of the aspirations of his pupils. Although none of these things may be consciously traced to their source by the pupils, yet their instinct will not fail to recognize genuine faith and hope or their lack in the character. Nothing is so difficult to conceal as one's conviction in regard to the origin and destiny of the world and of man.

(3) Finally, Charity is the highest of these virtues, in the sense that it is the concrete embodiment and application of that view of the world which Faith and Hope establish.

The world is made and governed by divine grace, and that grace will triumph in the world. Hence, says the individual, let me be filled with this principle and hold within myself this divine feeling of grace towards all fellow-creatures. Charity is, therefore, not alms-giving, but a devotion to others. "Sell all that thou hast" * * * "and follow me." Faith perceives the principle; Hope believes in it, where it is not yet visible; Charity sets it up in the soul and lives it. There might be conceived a Faith or insight into this principle of divine grace and a Hope that should trust it where not seen, and yet the possessor of this Faith and Hope lack Charity. In that case the individual would acknowledge the principle as dominant, but would not admit it into himself. With Charity all other virtues are implied, even justice.

While courtesy acts towards men as if they were ideally perfect and had no defects, while justice holds each man responsible for the perfect accordance of his deed with his ideally perfect nature, and makes no allowance for immaturity, Charity or loving-kindness sees both the ideal perfection and the real imperfection, and does not condemn, but offers its help, and is willing and glad to sacrifice itself to assist the imperfect in their struggle towards perfection.

The highest virtue, that of loving-kindness or charity, has of all the virtues, the largest family of synonyms: Humility, considerateness, heroism, gratitude, friendliness, and various shades of love in the family (parental, filial, fraternal, and conjugal), sympathy, pity, benevolence, kindness, toleration, patriotism, generosity, public spirit, philanthropy, beneficence, concord, harmony, peaceableness, tenderness, forgiveness, mercy, grace, long-suffering, and many others.

The typical form of this virtue as it may be cultivated in school is known under the name of kindness. A spirit of true kindness made to pervade a school is the highest fountain of virtue. That such a spirit can exist in a school as an emanation from a teacher we know from many a saintly example that has walked in the path of the Great Teacher.

From the definition of this principle it is easy to deduce a verdict against all those systems of rivalry and emulation in school which stimulate ambition beyond the limits of generous competition to the point of selfishness. Selfishness is the root of mortal sin, as theologians tell us, and the lowest type of it is cold unfeeling pride, while envy is the type next to it.

Returning to our first question, we repeat: In a state which has no established church and in a system of public schools that is not permitted to be under the control of sects or denomination, what shall be the fate of dogmatic instruction in morals, especially instruction in that part of morals which rests upon the celestial virtues? Of course the

problem is still a simple one in parochial schools and denominational schools. But it is not proper for us to ignore the dangers incurred even in strictly parochial schools. The more strict the denominational control the less likely is there to pervade the school that spirit of tolerance and charity towards others which is the acknowledged deepest tap-root of the virtues. Were the community homogeneous in its confession of faith, religious instruction could still properly remain in school. The movement of American society is not, however, in that direction, and it is quite likely that the church must see formal religious instruction, even to the ceremony of reading the Bible, leave the common schools altogether. But a formal reading of the Bible "without note or comment," or a formal prayer on opening school, is surely not religious or moral instruction in any such efficient sense as to warrant a Christian man or woman in sitting down in content and claiming a religious hold on the popular education. Such a delusive content is indeed too prevalent.

It is not the undoing of the separation of church and state even in the common schools, nor the struggle to maintain a frigid and bloodless "non-sectarian," so-called, religion in our schools that is to succeed or to do any good. It is for the churches to rouse themselves in the presence of this danger and proselyte by new means and appliances as well adapted to the present day as the Sunday-school movement was seventy years ago.

It is for the teachers not to claim the right to introduce formal religious ceremonies, but to make all their teaching glow with a genuine faith, hope, and charity, so that pupils will catch from them their view of the world as the only one that satisfies the heart, the intellect, and the will. Let us note the fact that in the mechanical virtues so important to making good citizens, the training in the schools is already admirable. Human freedom is realized not by the unaided effort of the individual, but by his concerted or combined efforts in organized institutions like the state and civil society. Those mechanical virtues make possible the help of the individual in this combination, and fit him for the modern world now bent on the conquest of nature.

The social virtues, justice, politeness, and obedience to law may be equally well provided for although in fact they are not successfully taught in every school.

The celestial virtues can be taught by teachers inspired by those virtues and by none others. The empty profession of such virtues without the devotion of the life to them is likely in the school, even more than elsewhere, to produce the well-known practical result of atheism.

In closing let us call up the main conclusions and repeat them in their briefest expression.

1. Moral education is a training in habits and not an inculcation of mere theoretical views.
2. Mechanical disciplines are indispensable as an elementary basis of moral character.

3. Lax discipline in a school saps the moral character of the pupil. It allows him to work merely as he pleases, and he never can re-enforce his feeble will by regularity, punctuality, and systematic industry. He grows up in habits of whispering and other species of intermeddling with his fellow-pupils, neither doing what is reasonable himself nor allowing others to do it. Never having subdued himself, he will never subdue the world of chaos or any part of it as his life-work, but will have to be subdued by external constraint on the part of his fellow-men.

4. Too strict discipline, on the other hand, undermines moral character by emphasizing too much the mechanical duties and especially the phase of obedience to authority, and it leaves the pupil in a state of perennial minority. He does not assimilate the law of duty and make it his own.

The law is not written on his heart, but is written on the lips only. He fears it, but does not love it. The tyrant teacher produces hypocrisy and deceit in his pupils. All manner of fraud germinates in attempts to cover up shortcomings from the eye of the teacher. Even where there is simple implicit obedience in the place of fraud and the like, there is no independence and strength of character developed.

5. The best help that one can give his fellows is that which enables them to help themselves. The best school is that which makes the pupils able to teach themselves. The best instruction in morality makes the pupil a law unto himself.

Hence, strictness which is indispensable must be tempered by such devices as cause the pupil to love to obey the law for the law's sake.

DISCUSSION

ADDRESS BY DR. EDWARD BROOKS, OF PHILADELPHIA.

The course of instruction in our public schools should be determined by the object of these institutions. This object, it is assumed, is the highest welfare of the individual and the state. The welfare of the state depends upon the character and actions of the individual; hence, in its final analyses, the problem of education consists in determining what is best for the individual.

The welfare of the individual is best secured by a development of all his powers and capacities; hence, the fundamental object of education is to supply the conditions for such development. A scheme of popular education should therefore provide for the development and training of all the powers of the pupil.

The lowest form of education is that of physical training, the object of which is the health, strength, and growth of the body. Rising above this is that system of manual training which unites mind and muscle in the attainment of physical skill and dexterity. Rising still higher, above the physical and the psycho-physical, we reach the largest and

highest field of education, the development and training of the human mind. It is here that we find the special field of moral education; and in arguing its value in our public schools we shall endeavor to show that it is an essential part of a system of general education.

An accepted analysis of the mind shows three great classes of powers,—the intellect, the sensibilities, and the will. Corresponding with these three classes of faculties are three great ideas,—the true, the beautiful, and the good. The object of the intellect is to discover what is true, and its end is science. The sensibilities find highest enjoyment in the beautiful, and the development of the beautiful gives us the fine arts. The idea of the good is related to the will, and the end of the good is character and moral action. These philosophical distinctions agree with and substantiate the popular division of human capacities known as the intellectual, æsthetic, and moral natures. The aim of the intellectual nature is the attainment of knowledge and truth; the aim of the æsthetic nature is the production and enjoyment of the beautiful; the aim of the moral nature is the embodiment of the right in human character and action.

The relative value of the education of these three natures of man will be seen in the relative value of the natures themselves. The intellectual nature brings into activity but a single part of our spiritual being—the power of thought and knowledge. The æsthetic nature, founded upon the idea of beauty, which is an intuition of the higher reason, brings into activity both intellect and sensibility; while the moral nature, based upon the idea of the right, brings into activity intellect, sensibility, and will. In mathematical phraseology, while the intellectual nature has a single sphere of activity, the æsthetic nature equals the intellect plus the sensibilities, and the moral nature equals the intellect, plus the sensibilities, plus the will. From this brief analysis it is seen that the moral nature brings into activity every capacity of the human soul and stands at the head of man's spiritual constitution.

This order of excellence as determined by philosophy will be found to correspond with the popular estimate of these distinctions. The great artist is usually placed above the great scientist; and no one hesitates to place character above both art and science. The majority of cultured people would prefer the fame of Shakespeare to that of Sir Isaac Newton; and Goethe and Schiller will live longer in the hearts of the German people than Fichte or Hegel. But high above all of these stands the man of moral character and heroic deeds. The great leader and law-giver of Israel towers immeasurably above either singer or scientist; and the grandest characters of history are those of high virtues and heroic moral actions. The world weaves green laurels for its thinkers, greener ones for its poets and artists, but far greener and brighter ones for its reformers and moral leaders.

This conception of the several capacities of man and their relative value in his spiritual constitution is the key to the solution of the

problem before us. Man is a trinity of spiritual powers, each one of which demands training and development in a scheme of popular education. An examination of our educational systems will show how this demand is met.

The value of intellectual culture is usually very fully appreciated and provided for. The development of the mind by the study of science is an essential part of the curriculum of every educational institution. The classification of both students and studies is based upon it; and the standing of pupils in class and on graduation day is determined almost entirely from an intellectual stand-point. Their æsthetic and moral culture are only incidental factors in the result; indeed the standing in the boat club or base-ball team attracts more attention and commands more honor than moral culture or integrity of character. I am stating a fact and not trying to show how it might be otherwise.

Studies for the culture of the æsthetic nature are less numerous than those for the training of the intellect. Our schools do much more to train the power of thought than to cultivate refinement of taste and feeling. Drawing and music give some artistic culture; and literature properly taught may awaken in the heart many tender and lofty emotions.

For the culture of the moral nature, however, less provision is made than for the training of either of the other natures. Very few studies in the public schools awaken moral ideas or feelings, and none of them put the moral will into activity. Geography, grammar, arithmetic, natural philosophy, etc., contain no moral ideas, awaken no moral emotions, and inspire no moral actions. History is about the only study in our public schools that appeals in any degree to the moral nature of the pupil except an occasional selection in the school reader. Literature as taught in a few schools for the special purpose of moral training can not be considered an established part of our school curriculum, as its use is so exceptional.

Let us notice the fact that thus confronts us. The highest and noblest part of the nature of the pupil is almost entirely neglected in our scheme of popular education. The formation of character, which is more valuable than either science or art, is almost entirely unprovided for in our public school curriculum. Nearly all of the time and strength of the teacher is directed to the training of the intellectual nature, which, if not the lowest of the three natures of the child, is certainly lower than the moral nature. We neglect the best and concentrate our energies on the lowest. Whatever excuse can be offered or explanation presented, this is the bare fact that confronts us. We are expending our energies on the child's intellectual nature; we are almost entirely neglecting the child's moral nature; and thus while our public schools are doing much for the spread of popular intelligence they are doing comparatively little, directly, for the culture of a higher sense of honor and a purer social life among our people.

The results of this one-sided education in our public schools are perceptible in our social and national life. Looking over society to-day, we ask the question, Does moral progress keep pace with intellectual progress? Are we advancing in virtue as fast as we are advancing in learning and intellectual culture? At one time illiteracy and immorality seemed to go hand in hand. Our criminal classes were mainly recruited from the ranks of ignorance. To-day intelligence directs the acts of fraud and dishonesty so that the misdoer avoids the meshes of the law or secures a safe retreat to Canada. While it is evident that the world is making some progress in morals, I think it will be generally admitted that intellectual activity is far in advance of moral progress. Science is making rapid strides in investigation and discovery; practical inventions are revolutionizing our methods of business and living; cheap methods of reproducing the masterpieces of art are multiplying the means of æsthetic culture; but the moral life of the country is progressing with a slow and lagging pace. In other words, the world grows better much more slowly than it grows wiser and richer. These facts indicate the pressing need of better moral training in our public schools.

And the force of this argument is intensified by the fact that while intellectual progress is due almost entirely to the school, moral progress is due almost entirely to agencies and influences outside of the school. The family, the church, the Sabbath school are all influential agencies for the cultivation of a higher moral life among our people. Our system of popular education, which is doing so much for the spread of general intelligence, can be credited with but a tithe of even the meagre results in moral progress which society presents.

But a still stronger argument, if possible, for the necessity of moral training in the public school is drawn from the consideration of the relation of the moral idea to society and the state. Society and the state are the products of the moral natures of mankind. Without the idea of the right and the corresponding idea of human rights and duties, mankind would be little better than a herd of cattle. A commonwealth founded on the code of the criminal classes would be an impossibility. A Botany Bay colony may organize a political community with wise and wholesome laws, but they do it by the development of those germs of morality which are native to the human soul and which a life of crime could not wholly destroy. The essence of law, either social or political, is not what is true, not what is beautiful, but what is right. Neither science nor art can lay the foundation stones of our civil institutions; they are founded upon and shaped in their development by the ethical ideas of the human race. Take the idea of the right from the state and the proud superstructure would fall shivered into a thousand fragments. If this conception of the origin and nature of the state is correct, it follows that the welfare of the state demands imperatively a system of moral training in our public schools.

We claim, therefore, that the interests of both the individual and the

state demand the moral education of the people. We claim that a scheme of popular education whose object it should be to provide for the development of the entire nature of the child, and which concentrates its attention on only a part of this nature and that the lower part, to the almost total neglect of the higher and more important part, is seriously defective and should be reformed. We claim that schools established for the welfare of the state should recognize the fact that the state has its origin and existence in ethical ideas, and should provide for the development of these ideas in its curriculum of studies. Indeed, looking at this question from the stand-point of the philosophy of education, it seems to us that the most pressing need of our public schools to-day is a well organized and properly administered system of moral education.

Up to this point there will, I believe, be substantial agreement in the conclusion and the arguments upon which it is based. I am moved, however, from a careful and conscientious study of this question to go a step further and claim that we should not only have moral but religious instruction in our public schools. I realize very fully the delicacy of the ground upon which I stand, and the fact that wiser educators than myself hold the opposite opinion. I realize also the objections to and the practical difficulties in the work, but an analysis of the problem of education compels to the conclusion no matter how difficult or delicate the task.

In presenting a few reasons for this conclusion I desire to make clear that by religious education is meant not a drill on creeds or instruction in those peculiar views which distinguish the various sects and churches; but a careful culture of man's religious nature, including those beliefs and feelings which are common to all the sects and all the churches. The arguments that have led to this conclusion are based upon the nature of man and the welfare of society.

First. Man possesses a religious nature. Man is not only a political animal, as Aristotle said, but also a religious one. In every human breast there exists, in germ or development, a belief in a Supreme Being. Even the undevout scientist finds in the universe an absolute and eternal source of power that transcends mere facts and phenomena. Towards this Supreme Being or infinite power the heart of man turns with instinctive veneration and affection. Out of this conception grows our religious nature, and upon this religious nature is founded the church and the highest principles of duty and morality.

Finding such a principle in the human soul, the educator has no alternative but to demand that it should be trained and developed. Its existence as an essential part of human nature is its own strong argument that provisions should be made for its culture and training. The object of education is to unfold and cultivate every capacity and power of the human being, and it can not ignore or neglect the religious nature without being false to its own ideals.

Second. This claim for the education of the religious nature becomes stronger when we remember the relative dignity and value of this element of man's constitution. A careful analysis of the human constitution shows that the religious element is the crown and perfection of our spiritual being.

As the ethical nature stands above the intellectual nature, so the religious nature is higher than the mere moral nature. Or rather, the religious nature is the highest form of the ethical nature; it is the ethical acting in relation to a belief in a Supreme Being. Religion re-enforces our natural conceptions of duty by the sanctions of a divine request or command, and thus elevates and intensifies our motives for correct actions. Standing thus at the head of our spiritual endowments, and being the most vital principle of our constitution, its claims for culture are the very strongest that can be presented; and any course of popular education that neglects to provide for such training and culture must be seriously defective and in need of reformation.

Thirdly. This conclusion is still further strengthened by a consideration of the influence of the religious nature on the life and achievements of mankind. The strongest motive of the human soul is the religious motive, and the highest achievements of the race have been prompted by its faith and feelings.

Even science, which sometimes condemns or ignores religion, has received its greatest impetus from the promptings of the religious nature. While there is much truth in the claim of modern philosophy that science has been of vast service to religion, it is also true that religion has been of vastly greater service to science. Religion was before science, and was its author and patron. Religion kindled and preserved the flame of science and philosophy.

The learning of the ancient Hindoos was with the priests; the priesthood watched over and preserved the light of knowledge during the dark ages; and priests went down to Spain and brought up the learning of the Saracens and spread it over Europe.

The discovery of America was due to a religious motive. The author of the Copernican system was a devout Catholic; and the discoverer of the planetary orbits in his religious fervor exclaimed, "O, God, I but think thy thoughts after thee."

The same is true in respect to the influence of the religious nature upon the arts. Religion has been the mother and patron of art. In its service poetry, music, sculpture, and architecture have attained their noblest achievements. *Jerusalem Delivered* and *Paradise Lost* are masterpieces among modern epics; and the *Iliad* without the supernatural element would not have survived the age in which it was written. The sacred oratorios of Handel and Haydn stand among the most sublime products of musical composition. The *Venus of the Louvre*, the *Apollo of the Capitol*, the *Moses of the Julian Mausoleum*—all embody the religious element and are the masterpieces of sculpture.

The frescoes of the Vatican, the Transfiguration of Raphael, and the Last Communion of St. Jerome, which portray actors, incidents, and beliefs, are all peerless productions in the art of painting. The temples of the Grecian gods and the cathedrals of modern Europe are the trophies which architecture lays at the feet of religion.

And the value of the religious idea to society and the state is no less important. Religious faiths and feelings have usually been the controlling motives in the founding, preservation, and improvement of nations. The best elements of the unwritten constitution of England are the results of religious forces working in the hearts of her people. The Crusades of the century whose influence on the civilization of Europe was so far-reaching were the result of the deep religious feelings aroused by Peter the Hermit. Our own country was founded and nursed in the religious beliefs of Penn, Baltimore, and the Pilgrim Fathers, and from the oath in the country justice's court to the morning prayer in the National Capitol we show our faith in the relation of divine influences to constitutional liberty.

With such a conception of the value of the religious nature to mankind, to science, to art, and to the state, the conclusion that the state should make provision for the culture of this nature seems inevitable, and I believe it is irrefutable. Any system of education that fails to provide for this culture it would seem must be radically defective, and certainly fails to meet the demands of a true and lofty ideal education.

I am aware that this discussion and conclusion may be met with the assertion that the claim is an impracticable one, and that the position is that of an abstractionist. Well, in such a cause, one should not be unwilling to be called an abstractionist; and we must not forget that the abstractions of to-day become the concrete realities of to-morrow. But we do not admit that the claim is an impracticable one. Moral and religious culture is entirely possible in our public schools. While the work is a delicate and difficult one, there are no insuperable objections to its introduction as a part of the common school course. Though it is not the province of this discussion to show how it can be done, we desire to fortify our argument by asserting that there are practical ways in which this training and culture can be given, and these methods should be recognized and applied.

It is a fact full of satisfaction that many of those who oppose this view in theory actually follow it in their practice. They allow the pupils in the schools under their charge to sing school songs in which the spirit of faith in and a respect for a higher power is a prominent feature. They use school readers in which the name of God frequently occurs, and in which, in prose and poetry, there breathes a spirit of faith in immortality, and the divine aspirations of the human soul are expressed. These give culture to the child's religious nature; would those who, in theory, oppose religious culture in the public school insist that all such sentiments should be removed from our school songs and

school readers? To be consistent, they should ask for an expurgated edition of school songs and readers, for the use of the present editions is giving some culture to the religious nature in our public schools. If God is to be banished from the public school, then all reference to Him must be banished from the text-books used in these schools. What we contend for is not an instruction in creeds, which is often merely an appeal to the judgment, but a careful culture of faith in and a feeling of love and veneration of a Higher Power. That which is now incidentally given in the songs and literary selections used in our public schools we would weave into a system of instruction and culture.

In concluding this brief and inadequate discussion of the subject, we desire to say that there seems to be a growing recognition of the value of moral and religious culture. The Catholic Church is demanding it; the Protestant Church is requesting it; and the large majority of good people of every sect and belief will commend and sustain it. Our public schools should be nurseries of moral power as well as intellectual activity. It will not do to leave all this training and culture to the family, the church, and the Sabbath school; we must prevent the reproach that our public schools are Godless schools. If we wish to train the highest and best part of the nature of the child, if we wish to prepare him for the greatest enjoyment and the highest achievements in life, if we desire to purify and elevate society and strengthen and perpetuate the state, we should recognize the imperative need of moral and religious education in our public schools. In endeavoring to build up the temple of the new education, while we may lay the foundations in manual training, rear its walls with thorough intellectual culture, adorn its interior with the refinements of artistic training and skill, we should not forget to round the dome and complete the edifice by a scheme of broad and thorough moral education. And if we wish to give greatest beauty and strength to the structure we should let the light divine illuminate our work by adding to moral education the higher element of religious culture.

REMARKS BY GEORGE HOWLAND.

Superintendent of Chicago (Ill.) Schools.

We need no additional instrumentalities or appliances for the development and formation of moral character, I think.

I am not a believer in progressive morality thirty minutes a day and then nothing. Repeating a formulated principle in morals is of no more worth, as to character, than reciting a definition in arithmetic or grammar. The whole life of the school should be in this direction; nowhere is there a fairer field than in the school-room.

It is for the wise, loving, sympathetic teacher, by her example and personal influence, inspiring here a worthy aim and checking here a wrong impulse, now encouraging despondency and again restraining

undue or unworthy ambition, presenting no narrowing, belittling motives, to control the ways and passions and untoward desires of the young hearts, and guide these sparkling currents of life into right channels.

She needs to induce an intellectual integrity, a regard for rightful authority, a reverence for the truth, a habit worthy, fruitful industry, which shall become a part of his very nature.

It is not a knowledge of what is right that is wanting, but this habit of self-control, self-guidance, and self-help, a habit that can not come from text-book or a careless or incapable teacher.

Moral training is too grand, too important, to limit to the fraction of an hour or a day. The whole life of our schools should be, and in many of them is, an active exercise in morality.

Dr. E. T. TAPPAN, State superintendent of Ohio, said that if children are to be trained to live moral lives their teachers ought to be God-fearing, model men and women; that the way the world has been led to be better was by example, and that the present moral status of the schools was better than ever before, whatever might be said to the contrary.

Mr. LUCKEY, of Pittsburg, thought that the present system of public education was a success morally. He gave statistics to show that the inmates of jails and reformatories showed an exceedingly small per cent. of public school pupils. The products of our system would compare favorably with the products of the system prevailing in France, where science and religion were taught together and the people were a race of infidels.

ZALMON RICHARDS, of Washington, asked if man had any standard of morality outside of himself. Is there any code or example to guide the teacher in his work? Shall we throw the Bible and Christ out of our schools, or shall we appeal to them? Is not the highest and best standard that which will bring the pupils of our schools to the high plane which those models furnish?

Dr. EDWARD BROOKS said that moral education should be based upon the recognition of the *Suprême Being* and of an immortal life.

BENJAMIN F. TWEED, of Boston, said that he thought Dr. Harris had given us an admirable analysis of the elements of moral education.

A. P. MARBLE, superintendent of schools of Worcester, Mass., said that he protested against the idea presented by Dr. Brooks that the schools do not train in morals. It reminded him of the claims of the advocates of manual training. When we read of such an example as that of the teacher in Dakota in risking her life to save her children, we can not look anywhere better than in the teachers' force for examples of true heroism and morality.

AARON GOVE, president of the National Educational Association, thought true scholarship and the habit of falsifying could not abide in one pupil. We must take the broad view of this question. If the re-

ligious ideas of Dr. Brooks are indorsed, then one-half of the schools of this land will be closed. Technical religious beliefs must not be taught if we would promote the best interests of public education. Is the product of the denominational schools better than that of the public schools? He claimed that the product of the public schools was far better and on a higher plane than in church schools. Moral instruction should be given.

Dr. HARRIS said that the schools could not cover the ground of the church and the home. In the boarding-school there should be religious instruction. It is in a large sense "in the place of the parent," but in the public school the pupils are in the schools but a few hours, and do not come under the same class. The true code is found in the celestial virtues—faith, hope, and charity. These make a moral being. Teaching of morality is not a theory, but a practical thing. This is done by training the will into ethical habits. Moral education is a training in habits. Theoretical moral instruction is not what we want, but the teaching of *moral habits that are practical* should be the great work of the educator.

The attempt to bring into the school both religious and moral instruction side by side is not easy to be done. Religion is to be taught by authority; in the teaching of other branches it requires different methods from religious instruction. They do not work well together. This is illustrated fully in the products of the German schools. These two things of religious and secular instruction should be kept distinct.

CAN SCHOOL PROGRAMMES BE SHORTENED AND ENRICHED?

BY CHARLES W. ELIOT, LL. D.,

President of Harvard University.

In the process of improving the secondary schools, colleges, and professional schools of the United States—a process which has been carried on with remarkable energy since the Civil War—certain new difficulties have been created for the higher education in general, and particularly for colleges. These difficulties have to do with the age at which young men can get prepared for college, and therefore with the ages at which boys pass the successive stages of their earlier education. The average age of admission to Harvard College has been rising for sixty years past, and has now reached the extravagant limit of eighteen years and ten months. Harvard College is not at all peculiar in this respect; indeed many of the country colleges find their young men older still at entrance. The average college graduate is undoubtedly nearly twenty-three years old at graduation, and when he has obtained his A. B. he must nowadays allow at least three years for his professional education.

In respect to the length of time required for a satisfactory professional training, there has been a great change since the War. Twenty years ago the period of residence at Harvard University for the degree of bachelor of laws was eighteen months; now it is three years. Many of the States of the American Union have passed laws which practically make three years the normal period of study before admission to the bar. Ambitious medical students are giving four years to their medical training. Twenty years ago the leading colleges were satisfied to take men just graduated in arts as tutors in Latin, Greek, and mathematics. Now they expect a candidate for a tutorship or instructorship to have devoted two or three years to study after taking his bachelor's degree. School boards and trustees have become correspondingly exacting. In short, professional education in the United States is becoming constantly more thorough and elaborate, and is therefore demanding of aspirants to the professions more and more time. The average college graduate who fits himself well for any one of the learned professions, including teaching, can hardly begin to support himself before he is twenty-seven years old.

This condition of things is so unreasonable in a new country like the United States—being hardly matched in the oldest and most densely

settled countries of Europe—that some remedy is urgently demanded; and the first partial remedy that suggests itself is to reduce the average age of admission to college to eighteen. This reduction would save about a year. In effecting this saving of time, it is greatly to be wished that no reduction should be made in the attainments which the average candidate for admission now brings to the American colleges; for it is probable that the saving thus effected will not be sufficient in itself, and that the public interests will require in addition some shortening of the ordinary college course of four years. College men, therefore, are anxiously looking to see if the American school courses can be both shortened and enriched; shortened so that our boys may come to college at eighteen instead of nineteen, and enriched in order that they may bring to college at eighteen more than they now bring at nineteen, so that the standard of the A. B. may not be lowered.

The anxiety with which men charged with the conduct of college education look at this question is increased by the relative decline of American colleges and universities as a whole. This relative decline, which was pointed out nearly twenty years ago by President Barnard, of Columbia College, is very visible of late years. The population of the United States is supposed by the best authorities to increase about one-third in every period of ten years. In the ten-year period from 1875 to 1884, inclusive, the universities and colleges included in the tables published by the Commissioner of Education show an increase in their number of students of only 11 per cent., instead of $33\frac{1}{3}$ per cent. If we select from the same tables the ten-year period from 1876 to 1885, the increase is 16 per cent.; but the explanation of this higher percentage of increase is that the total number of students in the year 1876 was abnormally low, being 2,400 beneath the number of 1875. If we add to the institutions enumerated as universities and colleges all the schools of science, and all the higher institutions for the education of women, we still find that this enlarged list of institutions has not gained students at the same rate at which the population has increased, although the schools of science have made very large gains in the decade referred to. Thus the increase in the number of students in universities and colleges, schools of science, and women's colleges, all taken together, was only 23 per cent. in the ten years from 1875 to 1884 inclusive. Obviously there are serious hindrances affecting all the institutions which receive young men and women at the age of eighteen or nineteen to keep them under liberal training for three or four years. One of these hindrances undoubtedly is that the colleges as a whole held too long to a mediæval curriculum; but a greater hindrance, in all probability, is the burden imposed upon parents when their elaborately educated sons can not support themselves in their professions until they are twenty-seven or twenty-eight years old. Hence the importance of the inquiry: Can school programmes be shortened and enriched?

In studying this problem it is natural to turn first to the schools sometimes called preparatory—that is, to the best high schools and academies; but if we examine the courses of study in these schools we find that the four years during which they keep their pupils are generally crowded with work. Thus the Phillips Academy, at Exeter, N. H., one of the best academies in the United States, has a four years' course which is so full that hardly any suggestion can be made for compacting or abbreviating it. But what are the requirements for admission to Exeter? "Some knowledge of common school arithmetic, writing, spelling, and of the elements of English grammar." These requirements might reasonably be made of a boy leaving the primary school at eight years of age; yet the average age of admission to Exeter is sixteen and one-half. Now, Exeter is an academy which does not content itself with such low terms of admission unless under compulsion. It would require more if it could get more from the average candidate; but it draws its pupils from a wide area, and its experience is against making greater demands. The Exeter course is itself encumbered with some studies suitable for a boy of ten. Thus it devotes much time to arithmetic, and teaches the very elements of English and English literature. A secondary school which is obliged to take its pupils in the average condition of the boys who enter Exeter can hardly do more for them in the four years between sixteen and twenty than is now accomplished at that academy. What is true of Exeter is true of the whole body of upper schools. They have to make good deficiencies of the lower schools. It is necessary, therefore, to examine the American school programmes from the beginning, to start with the primary school and go on through the grammar school and the high school, searching for the places where time and labor can be saved.

The subject seems to be one chiefly interesting to colleges, but really it has a much broader scope. In the first place, whatever improves the school programmes for those children whose education is to be prolonged, perhaps, until they are twenty-five years old, will improve the programmes also for the less fortunate children whose education is to be briefer. The public schools will never send to higher institutions any very large proportion of the children who are trained in them; but their programmes may best be made substantial and systematic by fitting them to the needs of their most intelligent and fortunate pupils. Moreover, we may reasonably strive to make every grade of the public school programme—primary, grammar, and high—and, indeed, every year in any programme, a thing good in itself, as well as a good introduction to the course of study which lies beyond it. The better the programme is in itself, the better it will be as a preparation for further study. To the primary and grammar schools this principle applies in all its fullness. In the high school and academy the principle needs qualification for the foreign languages only, and for that portion of the programme options should be allowed. The question, Can American

school programmes be at once condensed and enriched? has, then, a wide scope, and touches the interests of the whole population.

As evidence conducing to the formation of a just opinion upon the practicability of shortening and enriching our school programmes, an actual comparison of two public school programmes—one French and one American—covering the ages of eight to seventeen, inclusive, is printed on pages 111–15. One programme is that of the French secondary schools, which is followed all over France in the institutions called *lycées*; the other is the programme made by uniting the first three years of the Boston grammar schools with the complete course of the Boston Latin School. It is assumed that the Boston schools are a fair type for the country. Indeed, the Boston Latin School is supposed to be the best, as it is the oldest, American classical school which is supported by local taxation. In the tables referred to the programmes are placed side by side, so that the courses for the same years of age can be conveniently compared. It is in each case the classical course which is tabulated; but a similar comparison could be instituted between the corresponding programmes in which Latin and Greek are replaced by other subjects. In the French schools Latin and Greek can be in large part replaced by mathematical and scientific studies, and in Boston the English High School offers a programme like that of the Latin School, but with similar substitution of mathematical and scientific studies for all the Greek and some or all of the Latin. The present purpose can be fully accomplished by limiting the comparison to the classical programmes. The French programme was chosen rather than the programme of a German gymnasium, because it is a lower term of comparison, the German programme being more comprehensive, elaborate, and difficult. The French programme is a recent reduction of a programme in force from 1880 to 1885, the reduction amounting to about 20 per cent., and the number of recitations per week in the two programmes (French and American) is nearly the same. It is the best of foreign programmes as a term of comparison, because France is socially a democratic country, politically a republic, and industrially a country whose chief reliance, in the strenuous competition to which its population is exposed within and without, is the intelligence and skill of its producing classes. In all these respects France and the United States closely resemble each other. Moreover, the French boy has no possible advantage over the American boy in strength of constitution, intelligence, or endurance; on the contrary, he is not so large a boy as the American on an average, and he is not so well fed.

A very brief examination of these two programmes side by side reveals several important facts. The French programme is decidedly the more substantial; that is to say, it calls for greater exertion on the part of the pupil than the American, introduces the children earlier to serious subjects, and is generally more interesting and more stimulating to the intelligence. For example, at eight years of age the French

boy begins to study a foreign language, either English or German; the American boy begins to study a modern language five years later, at thirteen, when the best period for learning a foreign tongue is already passed. The French boy of eight begins the study of history in a very interesting and stimulating way through the study of biography; the American boy gets no history until he is thirteen, when he begins Greek history. The French boy of eight gives just one-third of the time to arithmetic that the American boy gives, and in the whole course does not give to that subject more than one-third the time the American boy gives; yet, for practical purposes, the French are quite as skilful with numbers as the Americans. The French boy gets at natural history earlier than the American boy, and in better subjects. Again, the French programme represents an actual fact, the large majority of French boys passing regularly through it at the ages indicated in the programme; whereas the programme of the Boston Latin School, prepared for the years from eleven to sixteen, inclusive, actually covers the years from thirteen to eighteen, inclusive. In comparing the attainments of the Boston boy with those of the French boy we must, therefore, add two full years to the ages set down in the American programme. The inferiority of the Boston programme, then, becomes very conspicuous. There is no single subject touched in the American programme in which the French boy does not accomplish more than the American. This appears very clearly on comparing the amounts of Latin and Greek set down in the two programmes, but equally plainly in geometry and physics. Moreover, the French course extends a year beyond the American course, and in the class called philosophy gives a comprehensive survey of philosophy and ethics, a thing never attempted in the United States with boys of seventeen, yet found practicable and in the highest degree useful in the French Republic. The preponderance of the French language, the mother tongue, in the French programme is most noticeable. Until Latin and Greek are introduced, French occupies half of the whole course. When the study of Latin and Greek is at its height, French still claims a substantial portion of the programme; and in the final year, the year called philosophy, French resumes almost exclusive possession of the programme. Great improvements have been made during the last ten years in the study of English and English literature in the best American schools; but the mother tongue does not yet hold anything like the place in American schools that French holds in the French schools. In the French *lycées* geometry comes before algebra, and with the help of drawing is treated thoroughly before algebra is seriously attacked, plane geometry being finished by the time the boy is fourteen years of age. At the Boston Latin School, on the other hand, plane geometry is not completed until the boy is seventeen according to the programme, and nineteen in reality. This brief discussion of the two programmes may reasonably convince any one that the French boy makes a much greater total at-

tainment by the time he is eighteen than the American boy has a chance to make at the best American schools by the time he is nineteen. Thorough study of them will only strengthen this conviction.

The comparison thus instituted gives no warrant for impatient, revolutionary action. The transformation it suggests is not to be wrought in a year, but should be the aim of patient labor during many years. Everybody knows that foreign institutions of education can not be imported; that a nation's educational institutions are strongly influenced by its political, ethical, and industrial conditions, and that the improvement of schools and colleges must necessarily be slow. It may, however, be justly inferred from this comparison of programmes that the condition of secondary schools in the United States is at present one of inferiority; that the country ought not to be satisfied with that condition, and indeed should strenuously exert itself to improve it, there being opportunity in American programmes for both condensation and enrichment. If it be said that the American boy turns out pretty well after all, and that the American community, as a whole, is as intelligent as the French or the German community, the ready answer is that free institutions are in themselves a considerable education for the population, but that the advantage which the nation has over Europe in possessing free institutions ought not to reconcile it to a position of inferiority as regards schools; it ought to aim to have the best schools, too. If it be practicable to make American primary and secondary schools better, the work of improvement should be set on foot.

The fair inference from the above tables being that it is practicable, it will not be unprofitable to consider some of the means of improving the American public school, from the primary grade through the high school.

1. In the first place, better programmes need better teachers. The great difference between the French and German secondary schools and the American is in the quality of the teachers. Two modes of improving the general body of teachers in the public schools demand special attention. In the first place, school committees, superintendents, teachers themselves, and all friends of public education should constantly strive to procure a better tenure of office for American teachers. The American schools will never equal the schools of Germany and France until well-proved teachers can secure a tenure during good behavior and efficiency, like teachers in those countries. Consideration, dignity, and quietness of mind go with a permanent tenure, and the public school service will never compete successfully with the service of private educational corporations in this country until the public employ is as good as the private employ in this regard. Secondly, the average skill of the teachers in the public schools may be increased by raising the present low proportion of male teachers in the schools. Herein lies one of the great causes of the inferiority of the American teaching to the French and German teaching. The proportion of women

teachers in American schools is vastly greater than it is in Europe. The larger the proportion of women in any system of public schools, the larger will be the percentage of new appointments every year and the larger the amount of work done by temporary substitutes. New appointments and substitutes generally mean inexperienced teachers, or, at the best, teachers suddenly put to work in unaccustomed places. This superiority of men as teachers has, of course, nothing whatever to do with the relative intelligence or faithfulness of men and women. It is a well-known fact that many women enter the public schools as teachers without any intention of long following the business, and also that women are absent from duty from two to three times as much as men. Young men who take up teaching as a temporary expedient are also unsatisfactory material. The schools need the life-work of highly trained and experienced teachers. After these two most important means of raising the average quality of public school teachers come lesser means which ought not to be neglected; thus, superintendents and committees can do something to improve teachers by invariably advocating the expenditure of money for teaching, rather than for mechanical appliances or buildings. Cheap teachers and expensive apparatus and buildings are precisely the reverse of wise practice, particularly if the fine buildings are not fire-proof after all. Again, the teaching of the public schools can, of course, be improved by the establishment of teachers' examinations, which secure a better preparation in the average teacher, and by methods of supervision which make known the relative merits of teachers who are on probation. Good progress has been made in this direction during the past ten years.

2. The second direction of untiring effort should be to the improvement of programmes; for the programmes are all-important to the steady development of the whole system of schools from top to bottom. A good programme will of course not execute itself; it must be vivified by the good teacher; but an injudicious programme is an almost insuperable obstacle to the improvement of a city's schools. As a rule, the American programmes do not seem to be substantial enough, from the first year in the primary school onward. There is not enough meat in the diet. They do not bring the child forward fast enough to maintain his interest and induce him to put forth his strength. Frequent complaint is made of overpressure in the public schools, but Friedrich Paulsen is probably right in saying that it is not work which causes overfatigue so much as lack of interest and lack of conscious progress. The sense that, work as he may, he is not accomplishing anything will wear upon the stoutest adult, much more upon a child. One problem in arithmetic which he can not solve will try a child more than ten he can solve. One hour of work in which he can take no intelligent interest will wear him out more than two hours of work in which he can not help being interested. Now, the trouble with much of the work in the public schools is that it is profoundly and inevitably uninteresting to the

childish mind. To enrich the school programme, therefore, and to make serious subjects follow each other in it more rapidly than now, is not necessarily to increase the strain upon the child; it is, however, to necessarily increase the skill demanded of the teacher, and hence the improvement of teachers must go hand in hand with the improvement of programmes. The best way to diminish strain is to increase interest, attractiveness, and the sense of achievement and growth. American teaching in school and college has been chiefly driving and judging; it ought to be leading and inspiring. Here are these beautiful fields—I will show you the way through them. Here are these rewarding exercises—I will show you how to practise them. Here are these heights—I will lead you up them.

3. Much time can be saved in primary and secondary schools by diminishing the number of reviews, and by never aiming at that kind of accuracy of attainment which reviews, followed by examinations, are intended to enforce. Why should an accuracy of knowledge and of statement be habitually demanded of children which adults seldom possess? How many well educated adults can add long columns of figures correctly, or find the least common multiple or the greatest common divisor of six or eight numbers? Nothing but practice can keep one skilful in these exercises, and we may reasonably be grateful that few people are compelled to keep in the necessary practice. Few adult minds retain accurately considerable masses of isolated facts, and it is commonly observed that minds which are good at that are seldom the best minds. Why do we try to make children do what we do not try to do ourselves? Instead of mastering one subject before going to another, it is almost invariably wise to go on to a superior subject before the inferior has been mastered—mastery being a very rare thing. On the mastery theory, how much new reading or thinking should we adults do? Instead of reviewing arithmetic, study algebra; for algebra will illustrate arithmetic and supply many examples of arithmetical processes. Instead of re-reading a familiar story, read a new one; it will be vastly more interesting, and the common words will all recur—the common words being by far the most valuable ones. Instead of reviewing the physical geography of North America, study South America. There, too, the pupil will find mountain-chains, water sheds, high plateaux, broad plains, great streams, and isothermal lines. The really profitable time to review a subject is not when we have just finished it, but when we have used it in studying other subjects, and have seen its relations to other subjects and what it is good for. For example, the French programme puts a review of arithmetic, algebra, and geometry into the last year. With all his mathematical powers strengthened by the study of algebra and geometry, and with all the practice of arithmetic which his study of mensuration and algebra has involved, the boy returns at seventeen to arithmetic and finds it infinitely easier than he did at fourteen. Further, the French boy has escaped those most exasperating of arithmet-

ical puzzles which a little easy algebra enables one to solve with facility. Many an educated New Englander remembers to this day the exasperation he felt when he discovered that problems in Colburn's Sequel, over which he had struggled for hours, could be solved in as many minutes after he had got half way through Sherwin's Algebra. Is it not an abominable waste of the time and strength of children to put them to doing in a difficult way, never used in real life, something they will be able to do in an easy way a year or two later? To introduce any artificial hardness into the course of training that any human being has to follow is an unpardonable educational sin. There is hardness enough in this world without manufacturing any, particularly for children. On careful search through all the years of the public school programmes now in use, many places will be found where time can be saved and strain lessened by abandoning the effort to obtain an exaggerated and wholly unnatural accuracy of work. It is one of the worst defects of examinations that they set an artificial value upon accuracy of attainment. Good examination results do not always prove that the training of the children examined has been of the best kind.

4. In almost all the numerous collections of school statistics which are now published in this country, it appears that the various grades contain children much too old for them, who have apparently been held back. This phenomenon seems to be due partly to the ambition of teachers and partly to the caution of parents. To illustrate with a specific case: In the Boston primary schools, which are intended for children of five to seven years of age, inclusive, 44 per cent. of all the children for three years past were over seven; and in the grammar schools of the same city, which are intended for children of from eight to thirteen years, inclusive, from 20 to 24 per cent. were over thirteen. It has already been mentioned that the average age of admission to the Latin School is not eleven years, as indicated in the programme, but thirteen years. It is really thirteen years and three months. For three years past, from one-third to one-half of the graduating classes of the Boston grammar schools have been more than six years in the schools, the programme calling for but six years. In the Boston primary and grammar schools the tendency is in the wrong direction; that is, in 1887 there was a larger proportion of pupils over age than in 1877. The ambition of teachers tends to keep children too long in the several grades because they desire to have their pupils appear well at the periodical examinations, and also because they like to keep in their classes the bright children as aids to the dull ones. The caution of parents tends to produce the same difficulty because they fear overpressure; not comprehending that with children, as with adults, it is not work so much as worry that injures, or finding that the existing system adds worry to work. The exaggerated notion that it is necessary to master one thing before a child goes to another is also responsible for the retar-

dation of children on their way through the regular course. The result of this retardation is that the boy comes too late to the high school or to the Latin school, and so fails to complete that higher course if he is going into business, or comes too late to college if his education is to be more prolonged. The great body of children ought to pass regularly from one grade to another, without delay, at the ages set down on the programme; and any method of examination which interferes with this regular progress does more harm than good. Of late years many experiments have been made on semi-annual promotions, and other means of hurrying forward the brighter children. The aim of these experiments is laudable; but the statistics suggest a doubt whether semi-annual promotions really promote, and whether they do not disturb to an inexpedient degree the orderly progress of the school work. In general the work of any school must be laid out by years, and on this account irregular promotions will hardly provide a remedy against the common evil of retardation.

5. If we look back a generation, or two generations, in the history of American schools, we shall find that the time spent in school by children during a year has been decidedly reduced; although great improvements have been made during the same period in the ventilation of the school buildings, and various bodily exercises, such as singing, gymnastics, and military drill, have been introduced. This reduction of school hours has gone quite far enough, and some steps need to be taken in the other direction. The ideal school should be so conducted that the child's physique is not impaired by attending it, or his enjoyment of his daily life lessened. Then longer school hours would not be unsafe or unwelcome. It should be the teachers that need rest and vacation, and not the children. In cities vacation schools seem to be a desirable addition to our present organization. A long vacation may be a very good thing for children who have at home some intellectual resources, or who can go to the country or to the sea in vacation, and there learn some things not found in books; but for children of ignorant or heedless parents, who have nothing of intellectual life to offer them at home, a long vacation is likely to be a serious injury, particularly in cities and large towns. Vacation schools tend to bring forward, or keep up, the least favored children, thus accelerating the general rate of progress during the year.

The chief objects of this paper were, first, to point out a serious difficulty which is embarrassing the whole course of American education; and, secondly, to indicate briefly a few of the directions in which labor may be wisely spent in improving our school system, to the general end that the pupils may receive a better training in a shorter time. The professional experience and zeal of superintendents and teachers will know how to devise and execute appropriate measures of relief and improvement.

FRENCH AND AMERICAN PUBLIC SCHOOL PROGRAMMES COMPARED.

[To illustrate the preceding paper by President Eliot.]

PROGRAMME OF STUDIES (1885) IN THE
SECONDARY SCHOOLS OF FRANCE.

CLASSICAL COURSE.

[In the Preparatory class and in the eighth and seventh classes the number of hours of teaching per week is 20, including one hour a week for drawing.]

PREPARATORY CLASS. Age 8 yrs.

FRENCH.	9½ hours a week. Reading, spelling, writing, and the most elementary rules of grammar.
GERMAN OR ENGLISH.	4 h. a wk. Exercises in reading and writing. Pronunciation. Accent. Indispensable paradigms.
HISTORY.	1½ h. a wk. Biographies of illustrious men—travellers, patriots, inventors. Talks on great personages in French history down to 1789.
GEOGRAPHY.	1½ h. a wk. Meaning of the principal terms in physical geography, illustrated from the town or county. Outlines of the physical geography of France. Geographical drawing illustrated with the globe, chart, and blackboard. The continents.
ARITHMETIC.	1½ h. a wk. Mental arithmetic—whole numbers.
OBJECT LESSONS.	1 h. a wk. Coal, metals, coins, clouds, rain, snow, ice, springs, brooks, lakes, wells, canals, seawater, salt, wind, storms, familiar animals and plants. [This set of subjects lasts 2 yrs.]
DRAWING.	1 h. a wk. Straight lines, angles, circles, polygons, stars, ellipses, spirals, the curves of plants, first notions of perspective. [This set of subjects lasts 3 yrs.]

EIGHTH CLASS. Age 9 yrs.

FRENCH.	9 h. a wk. Reading, spelling, writing, grammar, and little compositions. Descriptions reproduced.
GERMAN OR ENGLISH.	4 h. a wk. First notions of grammar, reading, writing, spelling, common phrases. English textbook—Miss Edgeworth's Tales.
HISTORY.	1½ h. a wk. Outline of French history to Louis XI.
GEOGRAPHY.	1½ h. a wk. Elementary geography of Europe, Asia, Africa, America, and Oceania. Voyages of discovery.
ARITHMETIC.	2 h. a wk. Whole numbers. Exercises in mental arithmetic. Easy problems.
OBJECT LESSONS.	1 h. a wk. Exercises on some of the objects mentioned in the programme for the Preparatory Class.
DRAWING.	1 h. a wk. Same as for the Preparatory Class.

SEVENTH CLASS. Age 10 yrs.

FRENCH.	9 h. a wk. As in previous years. Syntax.
GERMAN OR ENGLISH.	4 h. a wk. Grammar. Auxiliary and irregular verbs. Easy prose. Exercises in reading and conversation. English texts—Sanford and Merton, and Old Poz.
HISTORY.	1½ h. a wk. History of France from Louis XI to 1815.

PROGRAMME OF STUDIES (1887) IN THE
BOSTON GRAMMAR SCHOOLS (FIRST
THREE YEARS) AND THE PUBLIC LATIN
SCHOOL.

[In the Grammar Schools the number of hours of teaching per week is 22, including the drawing and music.]

SIXTH CLASS, Grammar School (1st year of course). Age 8 yrs.

ENGLISH.	11 hours a week. Oral and written exercises. Reading. Science lessons, pictures illustrating trades, etc., stories reproduced. Recitation. Writing from blackboard and from dictation. Letter-writing. An authorized reader.
ELEMENTARY SCIENCE.	2 h. a week. Human body with reference to hygiene. Plants (May to July), seedlings, sponge, coral, oyster, clam, anail. Shells, air, wind, rain, frost, snow, hail, ice.
ARITHMETIC.	4½ h. a wk. Whole numbers to 100,000. Decimals. U. S. money. Liquid and dry measures. Oral exercises.
GEOGRAPHY.	2 h. a wk. The earth a ball. Maps. Hemispheres, continents, oceans, climates, most important countries, peoples, cities.
DRAWING.	1½ h. a wk. Circle, ellipse, oval. Curves. Polygons. Drawing from dictation and from memory.
MUSIC.	1 h. a wk. Exercises and songs. Writing exercises.

FIFTH CLASS (Grammar School). Age 9 yrs.

ENGLISH.	11 h. a wk. Same methods as in preceding year.
ELEMENTARY SCIENCE.	2 h. a wk. Hygiene. Plants (Sept. to Nov., and May to July). Animals—lobster and insects. Sun, moon, and stars. Drainage of vicinity. Rocks and soils.
ARITHMETIC.	4½ h. a wk. Whole numbers and decimals continued. Avoirdupois weight, and units of time. Oral problems in common fractions.
GEOGRAPHY.	2 h. a wk. Important countries—our own first. Natural features, climate, productions, people, government, customs, and cities.
DRAWING.	1½ h. a wk. Objects in two dimensions. Octagon, spiral, simple ornament.
MUSIC.	1 h. a wk. Chromatic Scale. Breathing. Songs.

FOURTH CLASS (Grammar school). Age 10 yrs.

ENGLISH.	10 h. a wk. Oral and written expression, including writing 5 h. Reading 5 h. More advanced books and methods.
HYGIENE.	1 h. a wk. Continued.
OBSERVATION LESSONS.	1 h. a wk. Common metals, minerals, and rocks.
ARITHMETIC.	4½ h. a wk. Common fractions. Long, square, and solid measures. Decimals continued.

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FRENCH PROGRAMME.

GEOGRAPHY.	1½ h. a wk. Elementary geography of France.
ARITHMETIC & GEOMETRY.	2 h. a wk. Whole numbers and decimals. Metric system. Geometrical figures.
STONES AND SOILS.	1 h. a wk. Limestones, lime-kilns, mortars, plaster, clay, bricks, pottery, quartz, flint, grindstones, granite, sands, drift, mould, soils, fossils, quarries, volcanoes.
DRAWING.	1 h. a wk. Same as for the Preparatory Class.

[In the Sixth and higher classes the number of hours of instruction per week is 20, with 2 hours of drawing in addition.]

SIXTH CLASS. Age 11 yrs.

FRENCH.	3 h. a wk. Grammar. Extracts in prose and verse from French classics. La Fontaine's fables. Simple compositions.
LATIN.	10 h. a wk. Elements of grammar. Viri Romæ. Translation of French phrases into Latin.
GERMAN OR ENGLISH.	2 h. a wk. Grammar, reading, conversation, written exercises. English texts—Edgeworth's Tales, Aikin and Barbauld's Evenings at Home. Primer of English history.
HISTORY.	2 h. a wk. Ancient history of the Orient—Egypt, Assyria, Palestine, Phœnicia, Persia.
GEOGRAPHY.	1 h. a wk. Europe and the Mediterranean Basin.
ARITHMETIC & GEOMETRY.	1 h. a wk. Common fractions. Decimals. Sphere, poles, meridians, parallels. Latitude and longitude.
ZOOLOGY.	1 h. a wk. Man. Vertebrates. Articulates. Worms. Mollusks. Fauna of the principal regions of the globe.
DRAWING.	2 h. a wk. Perspective with shadows. Drawing from ornaments in relief, from architectural fragments, from the human head. [These subjects serve for 2 yrs.]

FIFTH CLASS. Age 12 yrs.

FRENCH.	3 h. a wk. As in preceding year. Extracts from La Fontaine, Boileau, Racine, Fénelon, Buffon.
LATIN.	10 h. a wk. to Jan. 1, 8 h. thereafter. Grammar, syntax, elements of prosody. Extracts from Phœdrus, Ovid, and Nepos. Latin theme, written and oral.
GREEK.	2 h. a wk. from Jan. 1. Grammar, accent, paradigms.
GERMAN OR ENGLISH.	2 h. a wk. Reading, writing, conversation, translation. English texts—Scott's Tales of a Grandfather, Franklin's Autobiography, Primer of the History of Greece.
HISTORY.	2 h. a wk. History of Greece.
GEOGRAPHY.	1 h. a wk. The oceans. Physical geography of Africa, Asia, Oceania, and America. Principal states, capitals, and commercial ports. European possessions.
ARITHMETIC & GEOMETRY.	1 h. a wk. Rule of three. Interest, discount, measurement of areas and volumes.
BOTANY.	1 h. a wk. Organs of a plant—root, stem, leaf, flower, fruit, seed. Divisions of the vegetable kingdom illustrated. Outlines of the flora of the principal regions of the globe.
DRAWING.	See the preceding year.

BOSTON PROGRAMME.

GEOGRAPHY.	3 h. a wk. Meridians and parallels, zones, winds, and ocean currents, climate as affecting man. Physical geography of North America, South America, and Europe. Map-drawing. Apparent motions of sun, moon, and stars. Seasons.
DRAWING.	1½ h. a wk. Ornament. Geometric forms. Elementary design from plant forms. Objects based on the oval. Cylinder, cone, and vase. Drawing from memory.
MUSIC.	1 h. a wk. Scale and staff intervals. Different keys to three sharps and four flats.

[In the Latin School the number of hours of instruction per week is 20, including 2 hours of military drill.]

SIXTH CLASS (Latin School). Age 11 yrs.

ENGLISH.	Not less than 3 h. a wk. Reading aloud and recitation of selections from prose and poetry. Reading the history of the United States. Grammar. Oral and written abstracts. Writing. Spelling.
LATIN.	Regular forms. Latin into English, and English into Latin. Writing Latin from dictation. Vocabulary.
GEOGRAPHY.	Physical and political geography, with map-drawing of the United States, the countries of Europe, and the other countries of N. America.
ARITHMETIC.	Review. Metric system. Percentage, with applications.
GEOMETRY.	Oral. Forms and simple propositions.
PHYSIOLOGY.	Oral instruction to begin March 1st.
Military drill.	2 h. a wk.

FIFTH CLASS (Latin School). Age 12 yrs.

ENGLISH.	Not less than 3 h. a wk. Prose—Tanglewood Tales. Autobiography of Franklin, History of England; poetry—selections from Holmes, Bryant, and Scott. Methods those of previous years.
LATIN.	Translation of easy prose and of Cæsar's Gallic War, Books I and II. Unprepared translation. Writing from dictation. Committing passages to memory. English into Latin—sentences like Cæsar's.
GEOGRAPHY.	Physical and political geography of S. America, West India, Asia, Africa, and Oceania, with map-drawing.
ARITHMETIC.	Oral and written. Percentage, including simple and compound interest, discount, and partial payments. Compound numbers. Ratio and proportion. Powers and roots.
GEOMETRY.	Mensuration, with oral geometry.
ZOOLOGY.	Oral instruction to begin March 1st.
Military drill.	2 h. a wk.

FRENCH PROGRAMME.

FOURTH CLASS. Age 13 yrs.

FRENCH.	2 h. a wk. Grammar finished. Extracts from Racine, Madame de Sévigné, and Montesquieu. Differences between French and Latin construction.
LATIN.	5 h. a wk. first $\frac{1}{2}$ year; 6 h. a wk. second $\frac{1}{2}$ yr. Extracts from Vergil and Ovid. Caesar's Gallic War. Quintus Curtius. Latin composition, oral and written.
GREEK.	6 h. a wk. Grammar, elements of syntax, simple compositions. Extracts from Xenophon and Lucian.
GERMAN OR ENGLISH.	2 h. a wk. Reading, writing, conversation, translation. English texts—De Foe's Robinson Crusoe, Irving's Voyages of Columbus, Miss Corner's History of Rome.
HISTORY.	2 h. a wk. History of Rome.
GEOGRAPHY.	1 h. a wk. Geography of France. French colonies.
GEOMETRY.	1 h. a wk. Straight line, angles, triangles, parallelogram, circle, secant, tangent, measure of angles.
GEOLOGY.	1 h. a wk. first $\frac{1}{2}$ yr. The principal rocks. Continuous changes of the earth's crust. Principal geologic periods, primary, secondary, tertiary, and glacial.
DRAWING.	2 h. a wk. From architectural fragments. The human figure, from prints and bas-reliefs. Some mechanical drawing of architectural designs.

THIRD CLASS. Age 14 yrs.

FRENCH.	2 h. a wk. Authors—Cornéille, Racine, Boileau, Bossuet, Fénelon. Compositions. Outlines of literary history. Free library of French authors.
LATIN.	5 h. a wk. Grammar reviewed. Prosody. Considerable portions of Livy, Cicero, Pliny, Sallust, Vergil.
GREEK.	5 h. a wk. Grammar continued. Extracts from Homer, Herodotus, Xenophon, Lucian.
GERMAN OR ENGLISH.	2 h. a wk. All varieties of instruction. English texts—Vicar of Wakefield, Tales from Shakespeare, Macaulay's History of England, Vol. I.
HISTORY.	2 h. a wk. History of Europe, and particularly of France, from 395 to 1270.
GEOGRAPHY.	1 h. a wk. Geography of Europe, physical, political, and economic. Geography of each state.
ARITHMETIC, ALGEBRA, & GEOMETRY.	2 h. a wk. Arithmetic finished, including square root and proportions. First principles of algebra. Plane geometry finished through area of the circle.
PHYSICS.	2 h. a wk. $\frac{1}{2}$ the yr. Gravity, properties of liquids and gases. Specific gravity. Barometer. Heat.
DRAWING.	2 h. a wk. Decorative figures, Caryatides, Friezes, Doric, Ionic, and Corinthian orders. The human figure, and figures of animals.

SECOND CLASS. Age 15 yrs.

FRENCH.	3 h. a wk. Selections from ten authors covering the XVI to the XIX centuries inclusive.
LATIN.	4 h. a wk. Prosody. The metres of Horace. Authors—Vergil, Horace, Cicero, Livy, and Tacitus.
GREEK.	5 h. a wk. Grammar reviewed. Considerable portions of Homer, Euripides, Plato, Xenophon, and Plutarch.

BOSTON PROGRAMME.

FOURTH CLASS (Latin School). Age 13 yrs.

ENGLISH.	Not less than 3 h. a wk. Prose—Church's Stories from Homer, Two years before the Mast, Plutarch (Greek lives); poetry—selections from Lowell, Gray, and Goldsmith. Abstracts, descriptions, oral exercises.
LATIN.	Cæsar's Gallic War, Bks. III & IV; Ovid, 1,000 lines; Æneid, Bk. I. Some prosody. Same methods as before.
FRENCH OR GERMAN.	Pronunciation. Regular verbs. Translation of easy prose. Writing from dictation. Vocabulary. English into French or German.
GEOGRAPHY.	General reviews. Astronomical and physical phenomena. Political and commercial relations of different countries.
HISTORY.	History of Greece, with historical geography.
ZOOLOGY.	Oral instruction to begin March 1st.
ALGEBRA.	Including the generalizations of arithmetic.
Military drill.	2 h. a wk.

THIRD CLASS (Latin School). Age 14 yrs.

ENGLISH.	Not less than 3 h. a wk. Prose—Plutarch (Roman lives), Addison's papers in the Spectator, one of Scott's novels; poetry—Macaulay's Lays, some of Tennyson's, Emerson's, and Wordsworth's poems. Abstracts, compositions, and translations from a foreign language.
LATIN.	Æneid, Bks. II-IV. Sallust's Catiline. Easy passages from Cicero. Unprepared translation. Committing passages to memory. English into Latin.
GREEK.	Forms. Translation of 25 pp. of the Anabasis. Unprepared translation. Greek from dictation. Vocabulary. English into Greek.
FRENCH OR GERMAN.	Reading. Oral and written translation of modern prose. Dictation. Committing passages to memory. Vocabulary. English into French or German.
HISTORY.	History of Rome, with historical geography.
BOTANY OR PHYSICS.	To begin March 1st.
ALGEBRA.	Including the generalizations of, and applications to, arithmetic.
Military drill.	2 h. a wk.

SECOND CLASS (Latin School). Age 15 yrs.

ENGLISH.	One play of Shakespeare. Part of the English required for admission to college. Recitation of prose and verse. Translations. Compositions.
LATIN.	Cicero, four orations. Vergil's Bucolics, and review of Æneid, Bks. I-IV. Translation at sight. Committing to memory. Vocabulary. English into Latin.

FRENCH PROGRAMME.

LITERARY HISTORY.	1 h. a wk. is devoted to the history of Greek (10 lectures), Latin (10 lectures), and French (15 lectures) literatures. This hour is taken from the hours appropriated to the three languages.
GERMAN OR ENGLISH.	2 h. a wk. Grammar reviewed. Reading, conversation, translation, composition. English texts—Julius Cæsar, The Deserted Village, The Traveller—a romance of Scott, A Christmas Carol, David Copperfield, extracts from English historians.
HISTORY.	2 h. a wk. History of Europe, and particularly of France, from 1270 to 1610.
GEOGRAPHY.	1 h. a wk. Geography of Africa, Asia, Oceanica, and America. Meteorology. Climatology. Productions. Commercial relations. Steam and telegraph lines.
ALGEBRA & GEOMETRY.	2 h. a wk. Algebra completed through equations of the 2d degree. Solid geometry to the cone.
PHYSICS.	2 h. a wk. $\frac{1}{2}$ the yr. Electricity and magnetism. Acoustics.
DRAWING.	2 h. a wk. Same as in the preceding year.

CLASS OF RHETORIC. Age 16 yrs.

FRENCH.	4 h. a wk. Eleven authors of XVII, XVIII, & XIX centuries. Fifteen lessons on the history of French literature from the time of Louis XIII.
LATIN.	4 h. a wk. Portions of Terence, Lucretius, Vergil, Horace, Cicero, Livy, and Tacitus.
GREEK.	4 h. a wk. Portions of Homer, Sophocles, Aristophanes, Plato, and Demosthenes.
GERMAN OR ENGLISH.	2 h. a wk. Authors in English—Shakespeare, Washington Irving, Byron, Tennyson, Dickens, and George Eliot.
HISTORY.	2 h. a wk. History of Europe and particularly of France, from 1610 to 1789.
GEOGRAPHY.	1 h. a wk. Physical, political, administrative, and economic geography of France and its colonies.
GEOMETRY & COSMOGRAPHY.	2 h. a wk. Solid geometry finished—through the sphere. The celestial sphere. Earth, sun, time, moon, eclipses, planets, stars, universal gravitation, tides.
CHEMISTRY.	2 h. a wk. first $\frac{1}{2}$ yr. Hydrogen, oxygen, nitrogen, chlorine, sulphur, phosphorus, carbon, silicon, and their most important combinations. General notions of the metals, oxides, and salts. Principal organic compounds. Nomenclature and notation.
DRAWING.	The human head from nature. Landscape from prints and nature.

CLASS OF PHILOSOPHY. Age 17 yrs.

PSYCHOLOGY, LOGIC, ETHICS, AND METAPHYSICS.	9 h. a wk., of which 8 h. are for the general course and two French authors, and 1 h. for one Latin and one Greek author. The two French authors are chosen each year from a list containing works of Descartes, Malebranche, Pascal, Leibnitz, Condillac, and Cousin. The course includes an account of sensibility, intelligence, and volition, of formal and applied logic, of conscience and duty, of family and country, of political duties, of labor, capital, and property, of immortality and natural religion.
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BOSTON PROGRAMME.

GREEK.	Anabasis I-IV. Sight translations from Xenophon. Greek from dictation. Vocabulary. English into Greek. As in previous year.
FRENCH OR GERMAN.	History and geography of Greece and Rome completed.
HISTORY AND GEOGRAPHY.	To begin March 1st.
BOTANY OR PHYSICS.	Through quadratic equations. Algebra and arithmetic reviewed.
ALGEBRA.	Plane geometry begun.
GEOMETRY.	Military drill. 2 h. a wk.

FIRST CLASS (Latin School). Age 16 yrs.

ENGLISH.	The English required for admission to college. Recitation of prose and poetry. Translations and compositions.
LATIN.	Æneid, Bks. V-IX. Cicero, three orations. Translation at sight. Methods as in previous year.
GREEK.	Selections from Herodotus. Translation at sight. Iliad, Bks. I-III, with prosody. Greek composition.
FRENCH OR GERMAN.	Prepared and sight translation from one or more French or German classics. Reading a history of France or Germany. Other methods as in previous years.
GEOMETRY.	Plane geometry completed.
Military drill.	2 h. a wk.

FRENCH PROGRAMME.

HISTORY.	2 h. a wk. Contemporary history, 1789 to 1875.
ARITHMETIC, ALGEBRA, & GEOMETRY.	4 h. a wk. Review of the whole course in these subjects.
PHYSICS.	2 h. a wk. Optics. Applications of physics—steam-engines, magneto-electric machines, electroplating, telephone.
PHYSIOLOGY, ANIMAL AND VEGETABLE.	2 h. a wk. Nutrition, organs of sense, voice, apparatus for movement, nerves. Vegetable nutrition and reproduction.
DRAWING.	2 h. a wk. Same as in the preceding year.

DISCUSSION.

JAMES A. MACALISTER, superintendent of schools, Philadelphia, Pa., opened the discussion, and commended the paper of Dr. Eliot in the most emphatic way.

He had never heard any more sympathetic and co-operative sentiments on elementary education than those expressed by President Eliot. The great aim should be to condense and enrich our school programmes. The "syllabus method" is a great gain in geography and history, abridging the use of text-books to a considerable extent. School superintendents need more learning, and more time for their work. They should not be mere school-masters.

REMARKS BY WILLIAM T. HARRIS, LL.D.

I am glad that the question of shortening the time occupied in completing the course of study in the primary and secondary schools has been brought up here. I feel thankful, as all present here do, to the author of this paper for presenting these clear and suggestive thoughts on the subject. Every superintendent here has had experience of the tendency to hold back pupils in the lower grades a longer time than is reasonable. This is usually done on the plea that the requisite thoroughness has not yet been attained. I do not know of any "educational fetich" in whose name more time is wasted than in the name of this fetich of "thoroughness." It is generally invoked by mechanical teachers, who require their pupils to memorize the text-book and repeat it *verbatim et literatim*. Such high per cents as are required for promotion in many city schools can not be obtained on questions which test the maturity of judgment and original thinking of the pupil. The questions are so constructed as to be answered by those who have, in the language of educational slang, "crammed" the pages of the text-books. Superintendents and principals of schools who make examination questions that search the understanding of pupils can not obtain average per cents that reach the nineties. Large numbers of pupils are held back from promotion in our city schools just for the reason that they

possess awakened understandings and cultivate reflection at the expense of parrot memory.

Then there is a class of teachers who hold back their brilliant pupils from promotion in order to make a show with them at examinations. I blush to mention such things! After a certain degree of acquaintance with one of these elementary studies it is better to go on to a more advanced study than to spend more time on it for the sake of thoroughness. Each elementary study should be pursued a sufficient time to give the pupil a mastery of its technique and an ability to use it in learning the next advanced study. Let the pupil study arithmetic enough to fit him to take up algebra. Do not hold him back to master what is viciously inserted in "complete" text-books as "higher arithmetic," for such higher arithmetic is mostly an application to geometry, or an attempt to solve by arithmetical methods what can be better solved by algebraic methods. Let a boy study algebra a year and he can easily make an arithmetic. He can formulate the rules and need not memorize them. What is too difficult to be solved by a more elementary method ought to be postponed until the pupil masters a more advanced method. Methods are tools of thought. To perform with ease difficult mechanical processes ingenious instruments are invented. Let the pupil flank his higher arithmetic by learning the elements of algebra and geometry.

There is another class of pupils who break down habitually at the point of promotion because they lack synthetic power of mind, not because they lack memory and application. They do not seem to grow in power of reflection. Even these pupils can be best dealt with by promoting them from the use of lower methods to higher methods; that is to say, let them leave arithmetic for algebra and geometry, rather than hold on in lower classes by repeatedly reviewing studies that have become nauseous to them. Such plodding intellects are sacrificed in our city schools; they never get to the high school; only a few get to the higher classes of the grammar schools. But they make substantial citizens, although in the school they lose very much self-respect by contrast with brilliant pupils specially gifted in memory and alertness of intellect, but often deficient in solid character. These plodders are the very ones who need superior tools of thought (higher methods), and I have found that they profit by irregular promotions as few other pupils do. They form a class of pupils that I used to call "clinkers" in our St. Louis schools, because of their stubborn resistance to the flame of the school. Some lumps of coal are called clinkers because they do not burn to ashes from lack of requisite carbon. New studies of a higher grade give these "clinkers" in our schools a new confidence in themselves and a new start to their sluggish intellects. Take a pupil dull at English grammar after he has spent time enough on it to wear off its freshness, and set him to studying Latin grammar. In a few weeks he can return to English grammar and master it by way of review. It

will seem a pastime to him. The method of flanking strong intrenchments by attacking the line of communications in the rear—that is to say, in this metaphor, by attacking a higher study which contains the theory of the lower study—has obvious advantages in certain cases.

The history of the graded school system is of interest. Did one ever hear of a higher institution of education that was not in the habit of complaining of the insufficient preparation of the pupils entering it? To raise the standard is the remedy proposed. Is there a high school in the country that would not, if left to its own tendency, raise the standard of admission until it demanded more than the average college demands? I think it safe to say that all our grammar schools would soon come to this if given all they asked. The course of study in the district schools of cities required of the average child who attended regularly about six years to complete it. In some cities the system of annual examinations for promotion has had the effect of stretching out the six years to nine and ten years.

Young pupils need frequent reclassification to compensate for different rates of progress, due to three causes. These are (1) difference in age and maturity of mind on entering school; (2) difference in regularity of attendance; (3) difference in health and bodily vigor. The influence on pupil and on teacher is deleterious if this frequent reclassification is neglected. The pupils with mature minds, healthy and vigorous bodies, or regular attendance are continually outstripping their immature, unhealthy, and irregular companions. But as the teacher gives out the average lesson for the class the best scholars do not have enough to do, and therefore get listless and lose habits of study and attention. They are kept back because of dull companions. Meanwhile the teacher frets over the backward ones, and acquires a chronic ill-humor and sourness of manner. The backward ones suffer most. They lose all self-respect and become stolid drones. Now all this may be prevented by frequent promotions and reclassifications. The higher classes are always in process of thinning out, and hence there is room in them for new pupils. It does good to take the three or four brightest pupils from one class and promote them without ceremony to the next class above. They have occasion to use their best abilities to keep up with the advanced class. Meanwhile promote the three or four best pupils from a lower class into the class from which the promotion has just been made. Pupils losing self-confidence because they were unequally mated with more mature pupils rapidly regain it on finding themselves at an advantage as compared with more brilliant pupils who have not had so much preparation. Thus by this "skimming process," as it is sometimes called, both listlessness and loss of self-respect may be corrected, and the period of apprenticeship in the elementary schools shortened.

What I have said about promoting pupils by flanking the problems too difficult for lower methods by taking up higher methods may seem

to conflict with this system of reclassification. But a little reflection will reconcile the two devices. The former relates to courses of study, while the latter relates to classification. While the school must not yoke together for a long time the pupils in the same class, it must not on the other hand permit any pupils to work longer on an elementary method than sufficient for that degree of mastery over it that will enable them to study profitably a higher method. In our arithmetics, for illustration, there are (a) the four elementary rules (addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division); (b) common fractions; (c) decimal fractions; (d) ratio and proportion; (e) involution and evolution. Of these fundamental orders of calculation there are ten thousand applications made.

There are tables of weights and measures, methods of reckoning interest, and forms of commercial transactions. These are not helpful to progress in higher methods, and yet they take up nine-tenths of the pupil's time devoted to arithmetic. This time may be largely saved by judicious selections of typical examples and omission of problems that can be more economically solved by higher methods. What is true of arithmetic is true of all the other branches of study—geography, grammar, history, reading, and writing. Even writing may be re-enforced by free-hand drawing and its difficulties overcome; so the reading of colloquial pieces may be facilitated by hard study on the gems of classical literature.

Considered properly, all elementary branches of study are elementary because they ignore the theory of their derivation or their relations to other branches. "Thoroughness" ought to mean the grasp of a subject in its widest relations and the comprehension of its evolution. Such thoroughness is impossible in strictly elementary studies. Such studies do not give any account of the theory of these methods, and if the teacher undertakes to supply this defect he finds himself teaching algebra before arithmetic, philology before English grammar, geology before geography, sociology before history, universal history before the history of one's native land, and rhetoric before reading. Such inversion of method produces this undue extension of the period occupied in the primary and secondary schools of our country. The true remedy is to move the pupil forward on the course of study into higher methods by which he can solve practical problems and business applications more intelligently and with less outlay of mechanical force. Let insight increase and so much verbal memory may be dispensed with.

ALASKA.

BY HON. N. H. R. DAWSON,

United States Commissioner of Education.

The love of adventure and the desire to explore are primal instincts in the human mind, and, like hope, spring "eternal in the human breast." Long before the Argonauts navigated unknown and dangerous seas in search of the golden fleece, primeval man had explored and discovered the continents and oceans of this planet. Ages before the daring Genoese sailed across the Atlantic seeking the western route to India—ages before the Icelanders had colonized Greenland and visited Vineland, ruder races had peopled the Antilles, the vast expanses of the American continent, and the icy gorges that glare upon the Arctic Ocean. Predecessors of Hudson, Davis, Baffin, and Behring, in times incalculably remote, had navigated the appalling waters that guard the secret of the pole. Yet what these precursors of modern man did had to be done in a different way before he could know the extent and wonders of our world. It is only during the last few thousand years, since men have lived in the valleys of the Nile and the Euphrates, that this world has been discovered and described and settled in such fashion as to render our knowledge of it profitable. Discovery, settlement, and description for European man began when the armies and navies of Egypt had subdued the races of Africa, Arabia, and Asia Minor to the dynasty of the Pharaohs. Since that time civilized navigators have explored in ever-widening circles the lands and waters, until now only the circumpolar regions, north and south, defy the curiosity of the modern world. The mythical and marvellous wonders of the voyage of Jason and his companions and the wanderings of Ulysses have been paled by the actual discoveries of modern travel and exploration.

In view of these long periods of historic and prehistoric time, how brief seems the one hundred and sixty years since Behring discovered the strait that bears his name! That intrepid explorer in his second expedition, between 1733 and 1741, discovered the Aleutian Islands and touched the American continent south of Bristol Bay at the fifty-eighth degree of north latitude. Two years after this expedition had ended in his shipwreck and death his attempts to establish a trade

with the native tribes resulted in the acquisition of North-west America by the Russian Empire.

From that time until the sale of the Territory to the United States, the Russian Government, through the agency of the trading companies, maintained an absolute despotism over the native races and reduced the Aleutian people to a state of serfdom. The Aleuts were much more intelligent and far less warlike than the Esquimaux, and were an entirely different people from the Indians of the coast or of the interior. The barbarous and inhuman treatment to which they were subjected by the early Russian explorers and trading companies, reduced them to less than 10 per cent. of their original number. This system continued until 1818, when the Russian Government interposed between the Aleuts and the trading companies, and adopted regulations which resulted in the improvement of their condition.

In 1824, Father Innocentius Veniaminoff, now the primate of the Greek Church, began his labors among the Aleuts as a missionary, and to him is due the change that has taken place in their condition since that time. The entire race, under the influence of the clergy, were educated to some extent, and Christianized, and were converted to the doctrines and worship of the Greek Church.

Alaska, formerly Russian America, comprises all that portion of the North American continent lying west of the one hundred and forty-first meridian of west longitude, together with a narrow strip of land between the Pacific Ocean and the British dominions, and separated from the latter by a line beginning at the southernmost point of Prince of Wales Island, in latitude $54^{\circ} 40'$ north; running thence north along Portland Canal to the point of the main-land where it strikes latitude 56° degrees north, and from this point along the summits of the mountain range parallel with the coast, except where the distance of said summits from the ocean exceeds 10 marine leagues, to its intersection with the one hundred and forty-first meridian.

It also includes all the islands near the coast, and the whole of the Aleutian Archipelago, except Behring Island and Copper Island, on the coast of Kamschatka. The area of Alaska, including the islands, is 532,000 square miles. This territory was ceded to the Government of the United States, in consideration of the sum of \$7,200,000, by a treaty with Russia on the 30th of March, 1867, the ratifications of which by the respective governments were exchanged on the 20th of June following. By this purchase the United States acquired an additional extent of sea-coast on the Pacific and Arctic Oceans greater than its entire coast line on the Atlantic Ocean and Gulf of Mexico.

In regard both to climate and agriculture, the Territory is divided into three regions: The Yukon district, comprising the country of the north Alaskan Mountains; the Aleutian district, comprising the islands of that name and the peninsula; and the Sitka district, comprising the remainder of the Territory.

In the Yukon district the mean annual temperature is about 25 degrees Fahrenheit, and the ground remains frozen to within two or three feet of the surface throughout the summer.

The climate of the Aleutian district is warmer, the mean annual temperature being from 36 to 40 degrees Fahrenheit. In a series of observations extending over five years the greatest cold was found to be zero, while the highest temperature was 77 degrees.

A still warmer and moister climate is characteristic of the Sitka district, the mean annual temperature being 44.7 degrees, and the temperature during the winter seldom reaching the freezing point.

The interior of the country is well wooded. On the Pacific Coast dense forests of spruce, yellow cedar, hemlock, and balsam fir clothe the mountain sides, both on the islands and main-land. The Aleutian Islands are wholly destitute of timber. In the Yukon region the wooded district recedes from the coast, but timber is abundant in the interior.

The agricultural resources of Alaska are practically confined to the Aleutian and Sitka districts. The abundant growth of rich grasses in these districts affords excellent pasturage, and good oats, barley, potatoes, and root crops can be raised.

The natives of Alaska may properly be classed in two divisions—the Esquimaux and kindred tribes, and the Indians. To the first belong the inhabitants of the Aleutian Islands and the Innuits on the islands along the coast from Behring Strait to Mount St. Elias.

The commerce of Alaska at present grows out of its fisheries, fur trade, and mining interests. Its extent may be inferred from the following carefully estimated statement of the market value of the products of these industries for the last year by the Governor of Alaska: Fur trade, \$2,500,000; gold (bullion and dust), \$1,350,000; fisheries, \$3,000,000; lumber and ivory, \$100,000; making a total of \$6,950,000.

Four peninsulas project from the continent into the waters of the Arctic and Behring Seas. The most southern, long and narrow, has given its name to the whole land, and is prolonged by a chain of rocky mountains westward for more than 800 miles.

From the south-eastern corner of the main-land projects the coast line as far south as 54° 40', north latitude. Into the heart of the central portion of this Territory extend the northern ranges of the Rocky Mountains. One of these, the Alaskan Range, turns southward at about 147 degrees west longitude; runs along the southern edge of the Alaskan Peninsula, and forms the Aleutian Islands, before mentioned, extending into the deeper waters of the North Pacific. North of these ranges the prodigious river Yukon takes its rise, flows through the Arctic plains, penetrates the mountains surrounding Norton Sound, and pours its floods into Behring Sea.

The river of warm water which flows through the Pacific Ocean, known as the Kuro Siwo, or Japanese Current, is the great climatic influence of the country. It flows northward from the torrid zone along

the coast of Japan, turns eastward and southward along the Aleutian Islands, then trends down the Pacific coast of America, exerting its genial influence from Alaska along the shores of Washington, Oregon, California, and Mexico. Wherever its warm, moisture-laden winds find their way there winter and drought are almost unknown. Under the influence of this wonderful current and the winds which constantly blow landward across its temperate stream the climate of the Aleutian Islands and south-eastern Alaska is surprisingly temperate and mild, comparing most favorably with regions in the same latitude on the Atlantic Coast.

This Territory is the only part of the United States that is not dominated at this day by Anglo-American ideas and institutions which began nearly three centuries ago to assert their supremacy in the New World. It has been repeatedly observed that colonization and civilization prosper best when travelling on parallels running east and west. This natural tendency is shown in the presence of the Esquimaux people in Alaska and other Arctic regions. The power that civilization gives increases the capacity, and the English races have shown themselves pre-eminently capable of successful modification and widespread growth. If it be true that

Westward the course of empire takes its way,

then the Anglo-American flood-tide will eventually extend also to Alaska. Such seems the lesson of history, as it is the commonplace of poetry. Shall history repeat for Alaska the melancholy tale she has already penned respecting the Indian of the United States? Are the natives of the new Territory to be expelled from their fishing places and hunting grounds, confined to ever-diminishing reservations or driven into mountains and deserts too poor to tempt the cupidity of the white invader? Are they also to acquire the vices and diseases of the white man without acquiring his safeguards of industry, education, and religion? Shall they be exterminated, and shall the millstones of our Christian civilization grind to powder the simple children of our Alaskan winds and waves? These problems are to be solved in the shadows of the Rocky Mountains and along the tempestuous coasts of the Pacific, but the moral responsibility will rest upon us, here in the older, richer, better-trained, and more thoughtful parts of our land. We may attempt to evade the problem and shirk the responsibility, but not without injury to our moral sense and fair fame as a great factor in the civilization of the Western Continent.

CIVIL GOVERNMENT.

The political condition of Alaska is anomalous and exceptional. The organic act of May 7, 1884, which provided a civil government, was deferred until nearly twenty years after the treaty of acquisition, and is an imperfect and crude piece of legislation. The act provides little

more than the shadow of civil government, without the right to legislate or raise revenue. It expressly inhibits the operation of the general land laws, while it provides that the laws relating to mines and mining shall be in full force and operation.

It provides no means by which its citizens may acquire homes or homesteads or obtain title to an acre of land in its ample domain. It provides no means by which the inhabitants can obtain the benefits and protection of municipal law. It has established a single tribunal, with a more extensive territorial jurisdiction than any similar court in the United States, but provides no means by which its process and decrees may be enforced. This act has been well described as "a legislative fungus, without precedent or parallel in the history of American legislation." As a consequence, the material progress and advancement of the Territory have been retarded, immigration has been discouraged, and its rich and inviting fields of industry remain undeveloped. Tracts of land adapted to agriculture, producing vegetables and the grasses and affording rich pasturage, may be found in many portions of the Territory. With the extension of the land laws to these parts of the country, an industrious and enterprising population would soon find comfortable homes and develop thriving industries. With the same advantages of civil government as are enjoyed by the citizens of other Territories, the people of Alaska would soon enter upon an era of prosperity which would justify the expectations of its most sanguine friends. It is to be hoped that Congress, at its present session, will provide such needful legislation as will protect its citizens and develop its rich resources. Alaska is the gate of the North Pacific and in the not distant future must become one of our most valuable possessions.

The principal towns of the eastern district are Sitka and Juneau. The former is the capital and is near the ocean; the latter is in the interior, on the main-land, and is the largest and most important town of the Territory. It contains a white population of nearly 1,500, and presents all the features of a new mining town, but quiet and order prevail to a surprising extent among its citizens.

As the steamer passes around a bold promontory fronting the sea, a view of the little city is obtained, situated almost at the foot of an overhanging mountain, from whose frozen summits a glacier furnishes the water by which the power to supply the system of electric lights which illuminates the town is generated. Is it not wonderful how rapidly the towns and cities of the West put on all the paraphernalia of civilization? Here are seen comfortable houses, with all the luxuries of wealth and refinement. As the steamer lands, a crowd of citizens and Indians come down to welcome her arrival, the latter with their curious wares and merchandise to tempt the passengers.

In sight, and just across the strait, on Douglas Island, the Treadwell mine is located—the most successful development of the gold industry in the Territory. The mountain reaches down to the water, extending

for miles along the sea-shore, and the mill is erected above the water line on a tongue of land jutting into the sea. It is said to be the largest of its kind in the world. It was organized by a young man, whose name it bears, with the aid of California and Eastern capital, and has recently doubled its capacity, now having 240 stamps, or crushers, which are operated day and night. The mill is at the bottom of this mountain, distant not more than 200 yards from the quarry which furnishes the gold quartz. Ledges of this quartz extend along the face of the mountain for several miles, much of which has been acquired by the company. About 500 feet above the mill an excavation or pit has been made resembling a funnel in shape. The rock is blasted from its walls and falls into this tunnel to a depth of about 300 feet, from which a tram-way takes the quartz through a tunnel into the mill, where it is crushed and then carried into the chlorine works, where the gold is separated from the dust. The quantity of this quartz is immense and seems exhaustless, and it is almost impossible to estimate the extent and value of the property. Neither is it possible to ascertain the annual output of this giant mine. The owners are reticent, but admit that the quartz yields from \$6 to \$15 per ton. About 600 tons are daily passed through the mill. This would make the annual yield amount to \$2,000,000. The plant has cost \$500,000, and is owned by a few wealthy capitalists in California and New York. Smaller ledges of gold quartz have been discovered in other parts of the Territory, and are being successfully operated, with a view to enlargement, as it has been found, after years of experiment, that success depends upon consolidation of capital in the fishing and gold-mining industries. The indications point to the existence of rich deposits of gold in many of the mountains that border the islands and the shores of this part of the Territory.

EDUCATION.

It is conceded that the perpetuity of our American institutions depends in great measure upon the intelligence of its citizens, and that this intelligence is due in no small degree to our system of common schools and public education. If the intelligence of the American citizen is so necessary to the security and enjoyment of his liberties, how much more important is it that the native races, who are now being endowed with all the rights of citizenship, should be prepared by education to appreciate their new privileges, and to understand their new obligations and political relations. Especially is this true of the people of Alaska, whom the Government is bound by its treaty stipulations to place upon an equal footing with its own citizens. Their education and elevation in the scale of civilization should become the settled policy of the Government, and should be pursued with earnestness and vigor. It was made the duty of the Secretary of the Interior by the organic act providing a civil government for Alaska to make needful and proper

provision for the education of all the children of school age without reference to race.

In April, 1885, under the provisions of this act, the Secretary appointed a general agent of education for Alaska. Schools were established during the year at a number of points. In the spring of last year a plan of organization, with regulations for the government of these schools, was prepared and promulgated by the Secretary of the Interior. The execution of this plan is confided to a local board, composed of the Governor, the judge of the United States court, and the general agent of education, and to it is committed the local management of the schools, subject to the general supervision of the Commissioner of Education. This plan for the local management of the schools has been heartily accepted by the Territorial board, who have undertaken their duties with zeal and fidelity, and have put the scheme into successful operation.

Briefly summarized, Government schools have been organized at fourteen places in the Territory, and efforts are being made to maintain them at other places, where, in the near future, it is proposed that buildings shall be erected and schools opened. It is proposed, should the means be furnished, to establish common schools in every native tribe, and in every settlement having a sufficient number of children, which will be open to all children without reference to race. They are to be taught to speak, read, and write English, the purpose of the Government being to educate them in our customs, methods, and language. The reports for 1886-87 show that one thousand three hundred and fifty children were in attendance at the schools, and it is expected that this number will be increased during the present year.

In addition to the public schools, which are supported by the United States Government, seventeen schools are maintained by the Greek Church on the Aleutian Islands and in the south-eastern part of the country, at which the children are taught both the Russian and English languages. These schools have an attendance of three hundred and eighty-one children, and are supported by the Imperial Government, which appropriates annually the sum of twenty thousand dollars towards their maintenance.

At Sitka the Presbyterian missionary board maintains an industrial training school, which is largely supported by the Government, and is in a flourishing condition. It has over one hundred inmates, who are taught the elementary branches of a common English education. The boys are also taught carpentry, while the girls are taught to sew, knit, and cook, and are trained in housekeeping. The school is under the management of Prof. William A. Kelly, and for its purposes is a most excellent institution.

The improvement of the educational condition of the Territory depends entirely upon the liberality of the Government, and unless larger means than the appropriations which have heretofore been made are obtained, no improvement can be expected.

Many of the natives speak English, and some are fairly educated in the elementary branches, and seem anxious to adopt the manners and customs of the white man. They make good carpenters, miners, sailors, and laborers, while a few are skilled artisans carving beautifully in wood and metal. They are generally industrious and self-supporting. They have abandoned the savage practices of their ancestors, and many have been brought under the influence of Christianity, being members of the Greek, Roman Catholic, and Protestant Churches. This is particularly the case with the Creoles and Aleuts, who are, to a large extent, civilized and educated.

A short account of the journey made by me to the south-eastern part of this interesting country is an appropriate part of this paper. It was undertaken by direction of the Secretary of the Interior in the months of July and August. Proceeding across the continent by rail to Tacoma, the terminus of the great Northern Pacific Railway, the headwaters of Puget Sound are reached. Here is situated the largest saw-mill upon the sound, cutting 250,000 feet of lumber per day, and employing three hundred men. The capacity of all the Puget Sound mills is said to be 2,000,000 feet per day. Here are seen waiting for cargoes ships from Australia, China, Japan, South America, and California. Now the steamer is taken and the route of travel passes through the waters of this beautiful inlet in full view of the immense forests of pine, spruce, and hemlock, which crown its winding shores, and of Mount Tacoma, the most sublime and majestic mountain on the Pacific Coast. Nothing is finer than a view of this grand mountain at sunrise or sunset.

Some of the trees attain gigantic proportions, ranging from one hundred and fifty to two hundred feet in height, and from ten to twenty feet in circumference. The steamer touches at Seattle, another of the three thriving cities that have risen within a few years upon the Sound; and again at Port Townsend, where the United States custom-house is situated, and the ship's clearance papers are obtained. The steamer here enters the historic strait of San Juan de Fuca, the dividing line between the United States and British Columbia, crossing its blue and placid waters, and casts anchor in the harbor of Victoria. This is a delightful resting place, an oasis in the borders of the wonderland that we are about to enter. Its blocks of stone and brick buildings, its wide streets and pretty gardens, its palatial residences, public buildings, cathedral, and navy-yard are the attractive beauties of the naval station and capital of our great commercial rival on the shores of the Pacific. Here the rugged Olympic Mountains appear across the strait of San Juan de Fuca, like blue clouds in the dim distance, and Mount Baker raises its snowy peak to the heavens.

Heading northward, the steamer goes through the gulf of Georgia and channel between the main land and Vancouver Island.

The shores fringed along the line of the horizon with mountains of various heights and forms, the verdant forests that seem to spring from

the very waves, give life and interest to the new and opening landscape. Passing across the open mouth of Queen Charlotte's Sound and Hecate Strait, and through the channel between Princess Royal Island and the chain of islands that border the Columbian shore, the ship enters Greenville Channel, one of the grand water-ways of the world, itself worth a trip across the continent to navigate its labyrinth of more than one hundred miles, surpassing in its lofty battlements and mountain walls the sublime canyon of the Yellowstone River.

Soaring above the wild cliffs, eagle after eagle is seen flying from eyrie to eyrie, while occasionally the white sails of an Indian canoe are observed leisurely moving on the quiet sea.

The day is magnificent; no clouds obscure the horizon, save where in mazy drifts they envelope the tops of the distant peaks; the shadows of the mountains falling across the waters are cleaved by the steamer as she glides and cuts her way through the narrowing channel, between the lofty precipices which rise from the water-line of the green and grassy shores. The islands emerging from the breakers like emeralds in a diamond crown; the dark forests stretching up to the snow-line far away; the crystal purity and balmy fragrance of the air, breathing of forest and ocean; the long lingering splendor of the summer day; the sapphire beauty of the summer night—all these are beyond the power of pencil or imagination, and are simply indescribable.

Only by comparison with other scenery can a faint idea be given of the loveliness and majesty of this inland passage. It is not exceeded in its novelty by that of any of the notable rivers of the world, and surpasses in grandeur and beauty that of the Hudson, the St. Lawrence, and the Rhine.

North of this channel we pass the now deserted village of Metlakhtla, with its cottages and Gothic church, until lately the home of William Duncan and his one thousand Indians, whom he has rescued from the vices of barbarism and converted to the truths of civilization and Christianity. Dickson's Entrance and the Portland Canal are reached. We have travelled nearly five hundred miles through British waters to reach the southern boundary of our possessions. We land at Fort Tongass, and are again on American soil. This is soon left behind, and the various channels of the Alexander Archipelago, with the wealth of scenery that they afford, greet the eye of the enchanted tourist. Fort Wrangell, with its decaying palisades and its totem poles, Juneau and Douglas Islands with their rich mines and large stamp mills, are reached, and then we navigate the waters of the famous Lynn Canal. Here first are seen the glaciers, or frozen lakes, which form between the valleys and slopes of the mountains, resembling in appearance vast fields of snow. One of these glaciers is forty miles long and five miles wide, and its mean vertical thickness is reported to be from five hundred to one thousand feet.

The next anchorage is Chilcat, the northern limit of the voyage, nearly one thousand miles from our place of departure. Here Indians come around the ship in their canoes, freighted with curios and furs for sale.

Now the spectacle changes as the steamer turns to the south, retraces her course to Icy Strait, and proceeds north through Glacier Bay. The scenery becomes arctic in its sublimity. Two great bays, surrounded by lofty mountains draped in everlasting snow, greet the traveller's astonished eyes. On every side float icebergs of exquisite beauty and majesty, of every shape and size, sometimes blue as the soft, cerulean skies, then flashing all the colors of the rainbow in the glistening sunlight.

All other pictures pale before this grand, magnificent, and mysterious landscape. Glaciers more immense than those of Switzerland creep from the mountain's summits to the water's edge. Of all these icy rivers the Muir Glacier, a frozen wall of ice five hundred feet in thickness, with a breadth of from three to ten miles and a length of forty miles, rising two hundred and fifty feet at its mouth above the waves of the sea, is the most wonderful and sublime. Large sections of it are constantly breaking off and falling into the sea, displacing the waters, and producing detonations like peals of thunder, causing the ship to plunge and reel at her moorings. Each of these becomes an iceberg, floating off with its imperial colors into the foaming and angry waters. The peaks rise fifteen thousand or twenty thousand feet above the sea, containing within their frozen walls many glaciers, but the Muir is the most striking and extensive. There is nothing grander in all the world. The ice deposited during the glacier age is slowly washing away, exposing giant cedars which have been buried thousands of years. Here is a spot for the tourist who desires to see the world in the original form of its creation.

Looking out upon this wonderful formation in a wilderness of ice and snow, said a distinguished Englishman, who had travelled over the world and seen its glorious wealth of scenery: "This is without parallel in India, Switzerland, or America. It is itself worth a voyage across the ocean."

The colossal forms of Mounts Fairweather, Crillon, and La Perouse, reaching far higher into the pale blue sky than Mont Blanc, the father of the Alps, appear to view. Their summits are clothed in perpetual snow, and are the landmarks for the mariner in these frozen arctic regions. We have reached a point within two hundred miles of Mount St. Elias, the highest mountain in North America, nearly twenty thousand feet above the level of the sea. No good picture of this imperial Titan has ever been taken nor has it ever been fully described.

We gaze upon this group of the St. Elias Alps, in mute wonder at the sublime architecture that delights and astonishes the mind of the beholder at every turn in the winding panorama of grand mountain scenery.

When I stood in the presence of this picture and gazed upon its wonderful features, its grandeur and beauty, its quiet and solitude, unmarred by the touch of civilization, I thought of the time when God beheld the world He had created and pronounced it good.

The vessel passes through the waters of Cross Sound into the Pacific Ocean, and proceeds south along the uninviting coast. In the morning, as "jocund day stands tiptoe on the misty mountain tops," Sitka Sound is entered. We pass rapidly through the placid waters, and, anchoring in the harbor, the objective point of the journey is reached, and the voyage of fourteen days is ended. We have measured more than one thousand nautical miles.

Nor is the goal of this pilgrimage unworthy of its wondrous pathway through the waters. Sitka is nestled upon one of the loveliest sheets of water in the world, smooth as glass, and reflecting upon its bosom the sparkling rays of the sun.

On three sides of this rock-bound bay lofty mountains with crystal crests are piled, one upon another, while a hundred islands, clothed with tropical verdure, protect the harbor from the sea. Lying quietly at anchor are seven sloops that have been seized by the United States authorities for trespassing upon the closed limits of Behring Sea and violating the regulations prohibiting the hunting of fur seal in its waters.

Upon a cliff jutting into the water, high above the town, looms the old castle of Muscovite days, while out of the lower edifices of the modern village appears the Byzantine spire of the old Greek cathedral. These venerable landmarks, mute witnesses of the old regime, carry us back to the times of the great Russian governors, Baranoff and Rezanoff, who worshipped, revelled, and held royal sway within their walls. Solitary in its grandeur and isolation, standing out in bold relief against the horizon, Mount Edgecumbe is seen twelve miles to the westward, like a sleeping giant resting from his labors, with its summit of volcanic scoria glistening in the sunlight. Its fires have slumbered for nearly one hundred years. Cascades come leaping down from its frozen summit like ribbons of silver, until lost to view in the forests that clothe its base. "The snow from its table-like crown has partially disappeared, and the bright red volcanic rock projects in radiating ridges from the white mantle that is fast disappearing, making a most beautiful crest to a mountain already picturesque by its singular isolation. With the western setting sun directly over it, radiating its golden beams upward, and the royal red ridges radiating downward, against their background of blue sky and snow, the picture is superb, one that even the brush of a Turner could hardly paint."

Naples, on its famous bay, is not more beautiful than this picture of Alaskan loveliness. As the evening setting sun goes down in a veil of crimson splendor, throwing its golden rays upon mountain, isl-

and, and sea, the enchanting and inspiring scene can only be adequately described in the glowing words of the poet :

There is a land, of every land the pride,
Beloved by Heaven o'er all the world beside;
Where brighter suns dispense serener light,
And milder moons emparadise the night.

* * * * *

The wandering mariner, whose eye explores
The wealthiest isles, the most enchanting shores,
Views not a realm so beautiful and fair,
Nor breathes the spirit of a purer air.

The aurora borealis frequently appears in these high latitudes in the form of luminous clouds in the heavens, sometimes exhibiting a strong tremulous motion. On several occasions I saw the display of this beautiful phenomenon in that rare form in which the rays appear to hang from the sky like the folds of lace drapery. It is impossible to describe these wonderful electrical displays, which light up the darkness and add so much to the beauty and glory of the Alaskan night. They remain like bright dreams of joy in the memory, always to be remembered. Indeed, language is too poor to describe adequately many of the shapes and features of this magnificent scenery. I find this idea so well expressed in a Western journal that I quote from its columns :

"Everything is on such an immense and massive scale that words are diminutives for expression rather than for exaggerated descriptions. People cross the continent to sail for an hour or two among the Thousand Isles of the St. Lawrence, and word painting has been exhausted in exaltation of their beauties. But here are a thousand miles of islands, ranging in size from an acre to the proportions of a State, covered with evergreen forests of tropical luxuriance, yet so arctic in their character as to be new to the eye. Day after day there is a continuous and unbroken chain of mountain scenery. I can not better impress the character of the landscape, as seen from a vessel's deck, than to ask the reader to imagine the parks, valleys, canyons, gorges, and depressions of the Rocky Mountains to be filled with water to the base of the snowy range, and then take a sail through them from Santa Fé to the northern line of Montana. You may divide the scenery into parts, by the days, and just as it was successively passed through, and any one of the subdivisions will furnish more grand combination of mountain and sea than can be seen anywhere on the globe. It is this vast profusion of scenery, this daily and hourly unrolling of the panorama, that overwhelms and confuses the observer. It is too great to be separated into details, and everything is on such a gigantic scale that all former experiences are dwarfed, and the imagination rejects the adjectives that have heretofore served for other scenes."

METLAKAHTLA.

During the voyage William Duncan, the distinguished English missionary, was a passenger on the steamer. Thirty years ago he estab-

lished a mission for the Indians near Port Simpson in British Columbia. He found them the slaves of superstition, practising cannibalism and other disgusting rites of their ancestors.

Under his teachings about twelve hundred of them have been converted to Christianity and have gathered around them, in their Arctian village of Metlakahtla, many of the comforts and appliances of civilization. The village is situated on a beautiful plateau near the sea-shore, and was in plain view of the steamer. One hundred dwelling-houses, with gardens attached, two large school buildings, a public hall, several mills and stores, and a Gothic church, built of yellow cedar, equal in architectural design and finish to many of the churches of our own towns, attested their progress. Under his practical and sensible guidance they have been trained to habits of industry and have become well-behaved and law-abiding citizens. The children have had the advantages of schools and religious training. On account of some political differences between Mr. Duncan and the civil authorities of British Columbia, growing out of disputes respecting the title to the lands upon which this village was built, and also with the church authorities, these people have become alienated from the Columbian Government and have removed to Alaska and placed themselves under the protection of the United States. The point selected for their new settlement is on Annette Island, near Port Chester, about 60 miles north of the southern boundary of Alaska, and has been named Metlakahtla, after their old home. Mr. Duncan had been to the United States in the interests of his people, and was on his return.

The steamer landed on Sunday afternoon, the 7th of August, at this point. The day was perfect, "a bridal of earth and sky." Attended by some of the passengers, Mr. Duncan was met upon the beach by a few of his people, and was warmly welcomed. The meeting was exceedingly impressive and affecting. Old men and women, girls and boys, gathered around this good man and expressed, with tears, their intense joy and gladness. Two United States flags, which had been presented to him, were raised upon an improvised staff, and the Indians and passengers assembled under their folds in the shade of the trees on the shelving shore.

I quote the following description from the pen of a correspondent, who contributed a graphic account of this incident to the *Portland Oregonian* :

"It is impossible to imagine a more lovely place than the harbor where the steamer lay at anchor. Semicircular in shape, it opens out through a number of small islands to the sea on the westward. On the east and north, wild, rugged mountains come down to the water's edge, and on the south a low, green shore, skirted by a gravel beach, winds in beautiful curves.

"The place was entirely uninhabited, except by a few of the Metlakahtlans, who occupied it as an advance guard of the colony. The re.

mainder, about one thousand in number, will come as soon as the means of transportation are provided. The exercises were impromptu. Mr. Duncan addressed the people in their native tongue; told them of his trip to the United States, and mentioned how he had been received, and how deep an interest had been excited in their behalf, and concluded by introducing Hon. N. H. R. Dawson, the United States Commissioner of Education, then upon an official tour of Alaska, who, at his request, consented to make an address, in order to allay the uneasiness of the Indians pending their new relations to the United States.

“His address was interpreted by Mr. Duncan for the benefit of those who did not understand English. Mr. Dawson congratulated the Indians upon their advent to American soil. They were impressively told of the power of the great nation under whose protection they were about to place themselves, and assured that they would be protected in their rights of person and property, and in the enjoyment of their homes, and that although the general land laws of the United States were not in force in the Territory, they would be protected in the possession of any lands upon which they might settle, and that when these laws were extended over the country they would be allowed to hold their lands. In the meantime they would have the protection of the Government and the same advantages of education which are enjoyed by the people of the Territory. Efforts had been made to impress them with the idea that the American Government was unfriendly to their settlement, but this impression Mr. Dawson successfully removed. His address was received with evidences of great satisfaction by the Indians. When he concluded the flags were unfurled to the breeze, the ship saluting them with her single gun. The Indians sang ‘Rock of Ages’ in their own language. The Rev. Dr. Fraser, of California, commended the new settlement to the protection of Divine Providence in a touching prayer, after which they all united in singing ‘Coronation.’ One of the chiefs, or selectmen, Daniel Ne-ash-kum-ack-em, then briefly replied to Mr. Dawson’s address, as follows:

“‘I desire to say a few words to let you know what our hearts are saying. The God of Heaven is looking at our doings here to-day. You have stretched out your hands to the Indians. Your act is a Christian act. We have long been knocking at the door of another Government for justice, but the door has been closed to us. You have risen up and opened your door to us, and bid us welcome to this beautiful island, upon which we have taken refuge from our enemies, and where we have decided to build our homes. What can our hearts say to this, except that we are thankful and happy? The work of the Christian is never lost. Your work will not be lost to you. It will live, and you will find it after many days. The few of us who are here to-day have been made happy by your words, but how much more joy will they occasion when they reach all our people, numbering over a thousand! What shall we say more to thank you? We were told that no slaves

lived under the flag of England. For a long time we relied upon this promise. We were content and happy, but we have found that our trust was misplaced. The promises made to us have been broken, and that nation in its treatment of us has set aside and disregarded its own laws, and has dealt with us as if we were slaves. We come to you for protection and safety. Our hearts, though often troubled, have not fainted. We have placed our trust in God, and He has helped us. We are now able to sleep in peace. Our confidence is restored. God has given us His strength to reach this place of security and freedom, and we are grateful to Him for His mercy and loving kindness. We again salute you from our hearts, and thank you in the name of all our people."

This speech was delivered in the intonations of his musical language, with a grace and ease of manner that harmonized well with the picturesque forum in which he spoke. It was an eventful occasion in the history of these people, and reminded me of the landing of the Pilgrims upon the inhospitable shores of New England, and was well calculated to rouse the highest feelings of devotion and enthusiasm. None who witnessed it, in the light of the serene heavens and the beautiful landscape of mountain, sea, and forest, will ever forget it. It was one of those rare instances of patriotism and self-sacrifice for conscience' sake which are not often met with in the examples of history.

A large bell which the Indians had brought with them was tolled, its peals re-echoing from the distant mountains, across the silent waters, and the passengers joined the Indians in their first service of evening prayer and praise, in the presence of a gorgeous sunset. It was a striking illustration of the confidence and faith of these simple people in the providence of that God in whom they had put their trust.

The story of Metlakahltla teems with incidents of surprise and gratification; the abandonment of home and country by its entire population is well calculated to challenge the admiration and excite the sympathy of the country. So notable an event is not deemed unworthy of being called to your attention.

Mr. Duncan has removed nearly all of these people to their new home, and is now engaged in the arduous labor of providing for their shelter and support. He writes that strong efforts were made to dissuade them from carrying out their purpose, but that they have remained firm and steadfast. In December over 700 had joined him, and the others were soon to follow. In addition to the Indians who have accompanied him, several neighboring tribes have signified their intention to unite with him in this new settlement. A school has been established at Metlakahltla, under the auspices of the Commissioner of Indian Affairs, and it is to be hoped that this colony will receive the protection and fostering care of the Government and people of the United States.

In making this visit to Alaska nearly ten thousand miles by land and water were travelled. Neither pen nor pencil can paint the wonderful scenery of this part of our continent, with its bays, inlets, and islands.

It would be well for those who seek the delights of travel at least to acquaint themselves first with the beauties and features of this part of our own continent before seeking them in the Old World. Its calm and placid seas, its picturesque islands, its marvellous glaciers, its magnificent ranges of lofty mountains are the features of its beauty and grandeur. Its immense forests, the abundance and richness of its minerals, its furs, and its fisheries all promise to make it one of the wealthiest portions of our American empire.

It may not be extravagant to predict that in the years that are to come the exhaustless resources of this coast will furnish the material to rebuild the American shipping of the Pacific, and that these harbors will be the navy-yards and havens for the commerce of half the world.

SUPERINTENDENTS AND TEACHERS.

THE SUPERINTENDENT AND THE TEACHER.

BY JOHN E. BRADLEY, PH. D.,
Superintendent of Minneapolis (Minn.) Schools.

The superintendent of schools is a busy man. I have no occasion, before this audience, to enumerate his important and varied duties, nor to relate how his energies and his time are encroached upon by demands which he finds it difficult to resist. In some cities—too many, I fear—as his powers and authority have been circumscribed, his cares and responsibilities have been magnificently enlarged. In such places he is expected to be a potent force in every nook and corner of educational work. He must bring about constant improvements and at the same time reduce expenses. He must creditably represent the interests of mental and moral training, and anon, as circumstances or the exigencies of some member of his board may require, he is expected to do a little political work. He must take inexperienced and half-educated persons, who have gained their appointments by social or personal influence, and transform them into painstaking and efficient teachers.

For superintendents who represent such constituencies this paper will contain no advice. How the far-reaching reforms which their circumstances require may be effected, we need not here consider. For the purposes of this discussion I assume, first, that the superintendent of schools is directed and sustained by an intelligent and judicious board of public instruction, honestly devoted to the interests of education.

If this assumption does not accord with existing facts; if the people have carried party issues into the management of the schools, and prostituted the cause of education to the tricks and deals and selfish aims of local politicians; if men of narrow views and inferior abilities have been placed in control of the vital interests of education; if membership of the school board is regarded as a stepping-stone to higher and more lucrative positions, or if the prosperity of the schools has been sacrificed to a false economy—if these and kindred obstacles oppose his success and efficiency, a superintendent of schools holds no enviable position, and must adapt himself to his environment as best he can. He will need all the scholarly qualities which should characterize every super-

intendent, together with a large infusion of tact, discretion, and manly courage.

Fortunately, however, most of our communities are too loyal to their school systems to intrust its control to such hands, and so my assumption that the superintendent is cordially and honestly supported in his work is, in general, I believe, true.

I also assume that the superintendent is himself possessed of like generous qualities and singleness of purpose. A trust carries with it grave duties. Power to confer a benefit implies the possibility of injury. Problems and opportunities imperfectly understood will not be wisely met. In few positions are more broad and statesmanlike views demanded than at the head of a great educational system. Nowhere else will a man so constantly need a keen insight and fine grasp of details. In no other position are a kindly appreciation of diverse interests, an abounding faith in human nature, and an indomitable persistence in sound convictions more important. An educational system in order to have coherence and vitality must be a growth, always progressive; it should never be changeable. He who administers it should be able to build upon the foundation which others have laid and to escape from the narrowness which would reject all methods but his own. Every new departure should be a safe and natural advance. Changes should be made to build up, not to tear down. That educational progress has been greatly retarded in this country during the last ten or fifteen years by premature and profitless changes, can not be doubted. Men have been ready to prove all things by the costly experiment of trying them, they have not been careful to hold fast that which was good. Symmetry of growth has been sacrificed by fickleness of direction.

For the wisdom and strength which shall combine permanence with progress, guard our school organizations from crude conceits, infuse heart and vitality into mechanical methods of teaching, and secure a steady unfolding of well-matured plans, we must look principally to the superintendent. If he is himself weak in conviction, and variable in judgment, no constituted power or authority can protect the schools from the inundation of shams which threaten them.

I rather assume that the superintendent is a man of scholarly attainments and habits, quick perception, and clear discernment, accustomed to look beneath the surface and see the remoter and more important relations of things, enthusiastic for educational progress when assured that it is real, and possessed of will and executive ability commensurate with the extent of his field of work.

With these two important conditions granted, I proceed to consider certain questions growing out of the topic which has been assigned to me.

And, first, I remark the relation of superintendent and teacher should be one of intelligent co-operation. All progress at the present day is by essentially the same method—division of responsibility and differen-

tiation of labor. If the efforts of many persons are to be successfully directed to the accomplishment of a common purpose, they must be guided by one controlling mind. Organization implies subordination. If plans are to be carried into execution some one must devise them. If different departments of work are to be successfully co-ordinated, some one must have authority to command. Unity of results requires unity of direction. How greatly the schools in country districts and the smaller towns have suffered from the lack of adequate supervision I need not here relate. But even the larger cities hesitate to employ the agencies which they have themselves provided. If a city should delegate ample powers to its school board, why should not the board, in turn, clothe the agent with all needful authority? In no other way can the benefits of thorough organization be secured. But no less essential than this recognition of the right of the superintendent to control, is an intelligent apprehension of his plans and aims by his subordinates. Willingness to co-operate can avail but little without the skill to make one's co-operation effective. An opponent is often less dangerous than a marplot; and a superintendent who would guide his teachers to the best results must find them able as well as willing to follow. Hence the necessity of professional training, of facility in discipline and instruction, of constant preparation and study on the part of teachers. Hence, also, the need of principals of well-trying skill and efficiency to deliberate with the superintendent concerning the management of educational interests, and to give vigorous execution to such plans as may be adopted.

Second. The superintendent should practically determine the selection of teachers. Whatever machinery of nomination and election may be adopted, if the choice of candidates rests with the school board or its committees favoritism and various forms of influence will inevitably hold sway. There is but one method by which merit and fitness alone shall be considered. That is, by leaving the selection to the superintendent—the board merely reserving to itself the power of confirmation. If any other person could afford the time and possessed the skill to judge the qualifications of candidates, the choice might equally well be left to him. The point upon which I insist is, that the naming of a teacher should be regarded, not as a prerogative or privilege, but as a high responsibility. Concentrate this responsibility into the hands of one person whose success depends largely upon the wisdom with which he selects his workers, and you need have little fear for the result. He is not only compelled by the circumstances of the case to act judiciously, but also to become skilful in judging of a teacher's qualifications. Each poor teacher is a direct reflection upon his sagacity; each wise choice is a new proof of his ability.

Third. How shall the superintendent choose from the multitude of eager applicants those to whom he will intrust the execution of his plans?

My space will not permit me to discuss the elements of fitness in teachers, much less the manifold elements of unfitness in candidates. Youth, inexperience, crudeness, are among the more common but not always the most serious disqualifications. An earnest, appreciative young teacher who has served a reasonable apprenticeship is certainly preferable to one whose years have brought experience and conceit, without improving her manners or her methods. Whatever may be true of pupils, teachers do not always learn to do by doing, and where experience fails to bring excellence it is pretty sure to bring the reverse.

Much has been said for many years concerning teachers' methods. The subject is important. The best method of teaching each topic ought to be adopted. It does not follow, however, that every teacher should adopt one fixed method. But far more important than a teacher's methods is the spirit which she brings to her work; and it is no exaggeration to say that the improvement during recent years in this particular has been even greater than in methods of instruction. A cheerful disposition and ready helpfulness are indispensable to the superior teacher. The old-fashioned teacher now is the one who scolds. Chronic fault-finding and corporal punishment are out of date, not because school boards or superintendents have prohibited them, but because the progressive teacher has discovered a more excellent way. In any candidate lack of thorough scholarship ought to be an effectual bar to appointment. Is it not time to require that teachers should possess something more than the merest elements of an education?

When the supply of well-educated teachers exceeds the demand, why should we continue to appoint those who can not pass an examination in the ordinary branches of a high school course? Why should our normal schools continue to receive students who have no adequate preparation for a normal course? Or, if this must be done, why should such persons be allowed to graduate with the credentials of the institution before they have acquired any real fitness for the work of teaching? Are not school superintendents of every name and kind called on to take a firm stand against such superficiality?

Fourth. The teacher's tenure of office.

Weighty arguments for a permanent tenure of office have been urged for many years. If the alternative is a constant liability that good teachers will be dropped by the board of education at the annual election, for political or personal reasons, only one conclusion can be reached—the annual election should be abolished. No teacher should be thus exposed to attack nor enabled to retain her place by cringing arts. But if the annual election is merely the confirmation by the board of education of nominations for re-appointment, prepared by the superintendent and carefully considered by a committee, it may be safely retained. Teachers who do good work will not lose their places by such an election, and perhaps no simpler plan of terminating the engagement of unsatisfactory

ones can be devised. Here, as before, the responsibility should be centred in one person; and that must necessarily be the superintendent.

The method is a minor matter, but in some way the superintendent should be enabled, with the concurrence of the board, quietly to eliminate from his corps of instruction such teachers as fail to do satisfactory work. It is a part of his official duty to become familiar with the faults and the merits of each teacher. He is expected so to organize his supervision as to afford several tests of their work, and when he can not bring a teacher to the requisite degree of excellence he should be able to effect a change. If teachers know that their positions depend on his estimate of their fitness they will devote themselves assiduously to their work, heartily co-operate in his plans, and endeavor to improve by his suggestions.

If, on the other hand, they look beyond the superintendent to an annual verdict which depends, not on the quality of their teaching, but rather on their ability to secure the good-will of certain members of the board, the school must inevitably suffer.

By all means, let us make the position of a good teacher permanent and desirable in every way; but it will not be by placing her beyond the jurisdiction of the superintendent, nor by making her tenure of employment independent of his control.

Fifth. The superintendent should use his authority sparingly and with great consideration. The relation of a superintendent to his teachers should be one of confidence and helpfulness. To a large extent it is his duty to devise plans, theirs to execute them. But no perfunctory performance of allotted tasks will characterize a good teacher, and no petty tyranny or indifference will find place in a good superintendent. There can be no enthusiasm for work which is harshly enforced. The teacher who scolds and clings to corporal punishment has her counterpart in the superintendent who rules his little dominion with sharp criticism and a narrow demand that all shall teach in the same way. A superintendent should study the strong as well as the weak features of each teacher's work. His general policy and aim should be not to repress but to develop the individuality of each teacher. I can not too earnestly protest against that form of supervision which would make teachers all alike and would reduce all to one dead level of imitators.

The work of every good teacher possesses a character of its own. Through it the element of influence and inspiration is largely exerted. Any conditions of work which unduly repress this individuality of the teacher, which relieve her of the necessity of devising her own methods, will inevitably tend to make her a parrot or a machine. Uniformity is artificial, variety is natural. In nature unity in certain qualities which constitute a class is no more conspicuous than are the differences which constitute the individual. And the higher we ascend in the scale

of nature the more conspicuous and important individual traits and characteristics become. At the best, systems and organization militate somewhat against the individuality of the teacher. No one will question that they have their place and subserve important ends, but nothing could be more fatal to good teaching than that the teacher should come to rely upon the system or the method instead of upon herself. Such a teacher blindly subjects all her pupils to precisely the same process. She fails to discover that they are not all constituted exactly alike. She makes no allowance for differences of temperament or natural ability. Her originality and invention are conscientiously suppressed. She infuses no vitality and heart into her work, and we have the spectacle of a teacher moving in a dreary routine, which constantly becomes more and more distasteful to her and to her pupils. That there are such teachers in many cities can not be denied. Great care should be taken lest our modes of supervision tend to produce them. A teacher who simply copies a method and attempts to use that which she has not truly made her own will fail. If she will study it, learn to use it, adapt it to her work it may be valuable to her; but until she has done this she will stagger under it as David staggered under the armor of Saul. Dr. Gardner, for many years the head-master of the Boston Latin School, once said to a young teacher newly appointed: "Your success will depend upon the amount of thought and originality which you throw into your work. I wish you to visit my classes and witness my methods, but don't imitate me, don't imitate any teacher here. If you are going to succeed you must have a method of your own. You must be yourself, not somebody else."

Remember, too, with what surprising readiness the child learns the slang of the street and play-ground. No teacher can inculcate useful knowledge half as fast as a bad associate will instil the wretched tales and false sentiments which corrupt the young. Many a boy is learning more bad grammar and other coarseness in the hour which he spends on the sidewalk than the best of teachers, and parents, too, can refine away during all the rest of the day. Now, why do children learn from one another with such facility? Whence this marvellous contagion of thought? Not, as some have supposed, because of innate tendencies to evil, for they learn many innocent and useful things in the same way and just as readily, but rather because, in the unrestrained and happy intercourse of childhood, mind flows freely into mind. The thoughts and feelings of favorite companions are absorbed without effort, and assimilated as certainly as is the food that nourishes the body. And where the intercourse is wholesome and ennobling, we may say with the poet laureate:

What delights can equal those
That stir the spirit's inner deeps,
When one that loves but knows not, reaps
A truth from one that loves and knows.

In some measure, at least, should the relation of teacher and pupil resemble the intercourse of child with child, of friend with friend. Can the teacher thus see one sluggish mind quickened into activity; above all, can a whole class be thus gradually aroused and inspired with enthusiasm, not only for the teacher but also for the knowledge to be imparted, the work of instruction will not be deemed drudgery nor the routine monotonous.

I have dwelt somewhat upon this element of inspiration and personal influence in the teacher because I deem it is so essential to true success in her work. It is the part of the superintendent to guard against those conditions which will repress this valuable power and to do what he may to strengthen it. In general, it should be his aim to add dignity and honor to the teacher's office; to lift her work out of a servile, lifeless routine, into the realm of freedom and enthusiasm and originality. He should encourage whatever will increase her influence with pupils and parents; protect her from pressure and unreasonable criticism; and endeavor to re-enforce the power of the school by the influence of the home. If the superintendents and boards of education had always been careful to do this the position of the teacher would ere this have been more desirable, and a corresponding improvement in the quality of those who seek the position would have occurred.

Sixth. The influence of a superintendent over his teachers is strongly exerted through the medium of the examinations which he prescribes for her pupils. If his questions call principally for names, dates, definitions, and other memoriter tests, he will stimulate the work which yields such results. The teacher will become skilful and thorough in cramming her pupils with unassimilated facts. If, on the other hand, he directs his tests to ascertaining the amount of intellectual activity of which pupils are capable, the thought which they have on any subject, and their ability to give it correct expression, he will rapidly produce a very different type of a teacher. She will teach her pupils to discriminate between that which is fundamental and that which is insignificant in importance, between a principle and its illustration. She will teach them to see facts in their relations, and to use their mental powers with ease and pleasure.

But there is another phase of this subject of even greater importance than the kind and character of the questions to be asked. Examination, thorough, searching examination, is, as Huxley says, an indispensable accompaniment of good teaching. But, like fire, it is a good servant but a bad master. When it usurps this place we witness the evils which usually ensue if a servant assumes the authority of a prince. An inversion of the natural order and relation of things takes place. Examination becomes no longer a means, but an end. The aim of the teaching is not mental training, but to make sure that the class will pass the next examination. The children catch the spirit of the teacher. All their ambition and enthusiasm are directed to securing the required

per cent. Every line and foot-note of the text-book is eagerly scanned for minute bits of information which may possibly be called for on the examination paper. An intelligent application of their knowledge to real events and relations in life is not attempted; indeed, it never occurs to the children that there are any such applications. They simply acquire a mass of disconnected facts under the motive and pressure of passing the examination.

I do not wish to join with those who have exaggerated the evils to which I refer. Not all teachers are slaves to the examination paper, neither are all the faults and failures of the schools due to its existence. Nor can I join with those who would avert the danger by simply abolishing the examination. It is difficult to see the wisdom of such heroic treatment. You do not reject all use of fire because it will do harm if misapplied. You do not wish for a dead calm because too strong a wind will capsize your boat. Examination serves important purposes. Properly employed it is a stimulus to both teacher and pupil. It indicates the weak point in one's work; it prevents an undue concentration of effort upon one favorite study. In a graded system, it is a means of keeping the grades uniform; indeed, no one has yet explained, I believe, how uniformity of attainments in the various grades is to be preserved without uniform examinations.

All the real evils arising from examinations for promotion can be avoided by combining with the results of the examination the teacher's estimate of a pupil's work.

What is required is some means of diminishing the importance of the examination in the pupil's eyes. If he feels that his promotion depends on his gaining a certain per cent. upon unfamiliar and, as he thinks, "cranky" questions, he will dread the examination, and his teacher will dread it for him. But if the examination has been so reduced in importance that equal weight is attached to the teacher's estimate of his merit, he will not fear to meet it. I speak with confidence on this point from an experience of many years. At the end of every month let the teacher record in her class-book, opposite the name of each pupil, her judgment of his work during the month. Instead of per cents. I have employed the words excellent, high, fair, poor, and very poor. It is only necessary to record the initials of these words—E., for excellent; H., for high, etc.

A plan of record is needed which requires as little labor as possible, and this certainly meets that requisite. Suppose, now, that such a record of a class has been kept for a year. We have a history of each pupil's work as judged by his teacher, who has made her estimate on the basis of his fidelity and general excellence no less than from his correctness in school exercises.

When the examination occurs, combine with this record of the teacher the results of the examination, giving equal weight to each, and determine promotions by the combined results. The necessity is thus

avoided of deciding by a single examination an issue of such importance as a scholar's promotion. Pressure is removed. We obtain not one but ten estimates of a pupil's quality and progress from his teacher, who, from the circumstances of the case, is the one best qualified to judge. The teacher is relieved from an undue sense of responsibility, as well as from the charge of unfairness, by the examination.

The grades are still held uniform in the different schools, and the superintendent is still enabled to give scope and direction to the work of instruction by this agency.

If I might, in conclusion, condense into a word the spirit and purport of this paper, it would be this: Develop the individual. Pupils differ in every mental and moral trait; let the one who knows them best, judge of their merits. Teachers do not all work in the same way. Encourage their originality and enthusiasm. Let your supervision stimulate every gift that is in them. Superintendents contemplate problems of administration each from his own stand-point; grant to each the widest exercise of discretion. Thus, and only thus, shall we obtain the fullest harmony in the relation of the superintendent and the teacher, and the richest product of their united work.

THE RELATION OF THE SUPERINTENDENT AND THE TEACHER TO THE SCHOOL.

BY REV. A. E. WINSHIP,
Editor of the New England Journal of Education.

[Abstract.]

The American school system must prepare itself for the criticism of prejudice. It will not stand simply as an aggregate of independent good schools. An unlimited number of good teachers working independently will not make the system secure. While it is true that the school is what the teacher is, it is not true that the school system is what the teacher is. The teacher is the unit of force; not the school committee, not the superintendent. There is no power in the world that can make a good school without a good teacher; but he may work skilfully, faithfully, heroically, and still be helpless in unifying the system. A hard-working teacher who does his best needs the assistance of intelligent, discriminating supervision. The superintendent is not a "boss" over the teachers; is not a spy upon them; is not to teach by proxy through them. He need not be a better teacher; usually is not as good a one as some of those under him. The superintendent occupies a distinct and important position. He is to unify the work of all the

teachers; to help each to adjust his work to that of the others. Since there must be grades, it is of prime importance that each teacher know what his share is to be, as he can not know it without the assistance of intelligent and judicious supervision. If there are five primary buildings to feed one grammar, and five grammar to feed one high school, and each has a first-class principal, there is the more need that some one mind shall advise them how best to work effectively.

All that the superintendent does in the school is to be done through the teacher. He has nothing to do with the pupils directly; that is the teacher's work. He has nothing to do with the parents; that is the committee's work. The committee and teachers ought to have little to do with each other, except through him. He must be an educator in the best sense of the term. The teacher may be such, but he does not need to be. Many of the best teachers have not been philosophers. If the teacher knows methods, he can teach without the fundamental principles. But the superintendent can not do good work without having a philosophy; he must know all systems and the working of all experiments in every city and town of importance; he must know how to make his system a success with the teaching force at his command. It takes no skill to make good schools if one can choose all the teachers and get the best in the State. His method of dealing with teachers must depend largely upon the kind of teachers at his command. He is to concern himself chiefly with the best methods of securing new teachers and of dealing with those now in service. He can not make good schools if he must take such material as personal interest, political, or sectarian prejudices inspire the committee to elect. If he must take his material from the training school, he must have the power to decide whether the candidates for the school give reasonable promise of success with training, and that training must be equal to the emergency. If he can have the privilege of taking teachers of successful experience by seeing them in their schools, there is no excuse for his not having the best work. To know how to get the best teachers, to direct their work to the best advantage with the least friction, to keep them loyal, and not to interfere with their individuality, is to make a success of the school work of a city or town.

DISCUSSION.

Mr. GEORGE J. LUCKEY said that the superintendent should have qualifications to suit the locality where he is to do service. There is one thing every superintendent should do; he should work to make the teacher's calling a profession. There is no class of people to-day that is so poorly paid as the teacher. It is not the duty of the superintendent to make the duties of the teacher unpleasant. It is absurd to require re-examinations when a teacher removes from one place

to another. They should be chosen for life; that is, during good behavior.

JOHN M. BLOSS, superintendent of city schools, Topeka, Kans., followed, and stated some of the difficulties attending the transfer of pupils from one grade to another without loss of time. This often retards the progress of the pupils. The superintendent should unify the work, so as to avoid this loss.

Mr. WINSHIP closed the discussion, and said the great work of the superintendent is to unify the work of the teachers—of course, the superintendent can generally teach well. The work of the superintendent is definite and distinct; not that of being a teacher. .

NATIONAL AID TO EDUCATION.

FEDERAL AID.

By J. A. B. LOVETT,

Superintendent of Huntsville (Ala.) Schools.

[Abstract from Journal of Education.]

The large colored population in many of our States present a strong plea for Federal aid to education. In fifteen States and the District of Columbia, there are 1,857,472 colored children within the public school age. While in many of these States the public school terms for each race do not exceed three months in the year, and while there is no discrimination between the school population of the two races, so far as the application of the school fund is concerned, the colored people labor under the great disadvantage of not being able to supplement their portion of the fund, thereby enabling them to secure the best possible instruction and longer school terms. The educational advantages of these people, therefore, are circumscribed by the meagre sums apportioned to them from the public school funds.

I am of the opinion that the granting of Federal aid to education, as proposed in the measure now before Congress, would prove to be a great economic measure to the General Government, the final and aggregate results of which would be millions of our ignorant youth taught and trained into useful and honorable citizenship, the inherent value of which to the whole country would far exceed the capital proposed to be invested. This observation is made in view of the difference between educated and uneducated labor; intelligent and ignorant suffrage; competent and incompetent jurors.

I am quite sure that public education on a more liberal basis is the only solution to the "capital and labor" question now so seriously threatening our country, and the only means by which the spirit of communism and anarchism is to be driven from our land. For although the source of these troubles may be traceable to a few well-informed agitators, the dangerous sentiments promulgated by them find a lodgment only in the minds of the ignorant, who are led into the deepest prejudices and distrust concerning the nature and value of our free institutions.

I view the measure in question as being a great national movement for the educational improvement of the whole country. The broad and generous provisions of the bill, its vital connection with the future of the American Union, and the fact that it is supported by those who are among the ablest statesmen of the great political parties, show that its conception was non-partisan and that its advocacy is free from party considerations.

I do not believe, as has been suggested by some of the opponents of this measure, that Federal aid to education will have a tendency to cause our educating committees to relax their efforts in the cause of public education. On the other hand, the proposed aid, coupled as it is with the condition that the States accepting it shall appropriate an amount equal to that received, will certainly cause the States to do all in their power, for they will understand that every dollar appropriated by them in this direction will amount to *two* dollars, until the maximum amount of the apportionment to each State shall have been reached.

The rapid growth and prosperity of the South may lead some to conclude that the Southern States do not need the educational aid proposed. But let us remember that while a few of the Southern States are attracting so much attention to their vast resources there are yet many which are not so favored. Let us bear in mind, furthermore, that the wealth of the more favored sections is gathered into the magic cities of the South, and its influence is but slightly felt in the rural districts. Public education in these thriving cities is generally well supported, while the country schools are sadly in need of assistance. The educational condition of the whole South is well expressed in the following brief abstract from the inaugural address of Hon. Thomas Seay, the present Governor of Alabama:

The State (Alabama) has not failed to do her duty. We would blazon it to the world that we do appropriate about one-third of our revenue to the cause of education, and yet we recognize that the State has not the ability to meet this great exigency.

The following is taken from advance sheets of the report of Hon. Solomon Palmer, State superintendent of education of Alabama:

Just now the South needs assistance as she has never needed it before, to enable her to educate her sons and daughters, that they may be fitted for intelligent citizenship and useful lives; and without assistance from the General Government, I fear the State will never be able to give thousands of her children now verging into manhood and womanhood, that education so necessary to qualify them for usefulness, to make them ornaments in society and benefactors to mankind.

The discussion of Federal aid to education has developed the fact of the existence of a non-progressive and anti-American spirit in the minds of some of our people. Senator Morgan a few days ago gave utterance to such words as naturally lead us to the conclusion that he, together with those whose views he represents, is in direct opposition to all efforts for the education of the masses. He said: "The education of the children of Alabama would be safer in the hands of the fathers and moth

ers of the State than in the hands of the teachers." When we remember that about half the fathers and mothers in Alabama can not read and write, and that three-fourths of the remaining half have a very limited education, there is but one construction we can put upon Senator Morgan's remark, and that is, all efforts to educate the masses should be discouraged. May we never see the day when such baneful sentiments shall gain a foothold in America.

THE BLAIR BILL.

BY A. P. MARBLE,

Superintendent of Worcester (Mass.) Schools.

Nobody doubts that education universally diffused is the safeguard of American liberty. But there is a difference of opinion as to how the result may best be secured. If some demagogue or educational talker proposes an impracticable scheme and calls it educational, those who oppose the unwise measure are not necessarily opposed to education; and it is not argument to say that they are opposed to progress. The real question is, whether the measure is right, and whether its influence will probably help or retard education. And "resolutions" passed in a hurry and without discussion, or adopted by questionable methods, have no force in binding any body of men.

The Blair bill is a bribe. It proposes to spend a vast sum of money, nominally for education. Its chief support, what will secure its passage if it is to become a law, is not its educational value at all, but the mere desire for a large grant of money with those who expect to receive the money, and the desire to get rid of the surplus on the part of others. Whole districts have carried the elections on the simple issue of getting so much money.

The State will receive so much—the larger sum as the shame of ignorance is larger, the county so much, and the particular district so much; and this sum not to increase the school facilities, but to diminish the taxes. For this reason the Blair bill is popular in certain localities. As a party measure, the bill is designed to make voters and to divide the solid South. The aim is also to put the other party in a dilemma; if they defeat the bill and thus deny the great bonus of millions, they offend that large mass of the Southern people who want the money, even if it comes from the abdomen of a Trojan horse; or if they pass the bill, then they desert their principles and give up the shibboleth of economy. Any one who thinks the Blair bill is an educational question and not a political question is misinformed. The figures of the census are paraded to exhibit the mass of ignorance that menaces our institutions. The fact is usually suppressed that a large proportion of the illiterate are beyond the school age.

The flattering unction is laid to the souls of the sentimental advocates of this bill that the millions of dollars are certain at once to wipe out the ignorance. In the hands of politicians there are many channels besides the salaries of teachers into which those millions will flow. And it is morally certain that the effect will be, not to increase the efforts that the people of the South are now making to establish good schools—efforts that are grandly successful—but simply to diminish the school taxes.

This effect has already been seen ; this effect is certainly foreshadowed by the very argument which gives the bill its popularity—so much money to diminish the school tax.

It is said that there is a vast amount of ignorance in the South, where most of this proposed \$77,000,000 will go, and that this ignorance is a menace to the Republic. In Brooklyn, N. Y., it is also said there are 45,000 children of school age not in any school. In Jersey City there are accommodations for only 16,000 of the 51,000 children of school age, though 23,000 children are crowded into the schools. In the City of New York there are multitudes of ignorant children and adults—for, though the statistics are not at hand, the conditions are similar to those of the neighboring cities. Here is a mass of ignorance, not scattered over a large territory where its power of evil is dissipated, but aggregated to fester and breed rapine and riot. In every large city, however costly and good its schools may be, there is this mass of ignorant men. It burst out in New York in the riots of 1863 ; in Pittsburg more recently, where property by millions was destroyed ; and in Chicago.

Again, in this country the prevailing belief is that the purity of the family is essential to our civilization ; that a man should have one wife and but one ; and a woman but one husband. An intelligent Turk once said to me that in his country the man with many wives is by law compelled to support them all ; and he had observed that it is not always so in this country. In Utah polygamy is openly practised in defiance of the laws which Congress has the sole power to make. This Territory is now seeking admission to the Union. Here, then, are three menaces to the nation,—ignorance at the South, ignorance in large cities, polygamy in Utah and elsewhere. We have a powerful Government at Washington, with money and men. Why does it not put an end to all this iniquity at once ? In Utah the evil may be obliterated if the attempt is persevered in, though even there the execution of the laws is not without its difficulties, since, to some extent, the principle of self-government must be recognized. But if the Territory were once admitted into the Union, and if the majority of the people there were to adhere to their peculiar institution, no matter what guarantees her Constitution might contain, there is no way in which the Federal Government could interfere with polygamy in the State. Senator Dawes has shown this fact most conclusively in a recent article in *The Forum*, and if the United States can not deal with polygamy in a State, as it could not deal with slavery in

the States in ante-bellum times, then it can not deal with ignorance in a State. In both these cases, if my logic is not at fault, the sovereign power over the matter belongs to the State. It follows, then, that the United States Government can not do everything which may be good in itself; it follows that the evil of ignorance can not be directly dealt with by the United States, either in the large cities or in a whole group of States; and it follows that the author of that conclusive argument about Utah ought to vote against the Blair bill.

Suppose, now, that the Blair bill becomes a law; who will then be conducting the education which this bill aims at? Is it the State or the United States? It can not be both; they may work together for awhile, but there can be no two powers, both supreme at the same time and about the same thing.

The excuse for this endowment is, that several millions of ignorant slaves have been made free and intrusted with the ballot; and that certain of the States are too poor to educate them properly. The measure is advocated by some in order to educate the negroes; one gentleman from the South has said that he would like to see the bill passed in such a form that all the money would be thus expended. There is nothing to show that the educators of the South are disposed to defraud the negroes in respect of education. But suppose that some one were to think that the negroes were being defrauded, and that the United States were to interfere with what a State proposes to do. Here the trouble would begin; and there can be no doubt that, in such a case, the State would have its own way. The United States could not control a State in respect to its education. Of course the money could be withheld. But the principle is well established that to the State, and not to the United States, the subject of education belongs. It is not a delegated power but a reserved right, and the United States can do nothing in this matter as against a State. The \$77,000,000, then, becomes a gift to the several States in unequal proportions.

Others advocate this measure on the ground that the Federal Government owes money to the several States of the South, which has been unjustly taken from them by taxation or by freeing the slaves. If by taxation, then the tariff ought to be upset—and that is too much of a question for this place; if in consequence of the late Civil War the nation is indebted to certain of the States, that is also a question too large for this discussion, and we'd better drop it.

Still others say that those States are too poor to educate their children. If this be so, let us see how the bill will affect a State, say Alabama. At present the statistics are from memory. That State, poor you say, raises \$600,000 for schools. Under the operation of this bill she must raise \$750,000 the second year, \$900,000 the next year, and so on up to \$1,500,000 or \$2,000,000 in one year. Now, if the State is so poor, how is she to do this? Will education in the first half-dozen years so increase her resources? Education is a great promoter of prosperity,

but it may be doubted whether it will do so much so soon. Besides, if the State can thus increase her appropriation, why does she not go right on and do it now? Is the disposition wanting? Then the disposition, like the capacity which a rich man wanted to buy for his daughter at school, is not a thing to be bought.

But how many of the States are so poor? The papers are filled with accounts of the enterprise and the growing prosperity of the South. There are the mines of Georgia, and her streams where factories are going up. The climate is favorable. No people in the world are smarter. Is Texas poor? One-half of her 275,000 square miles of public lands will provide for the schools for a decade. If she, or any State, is in temporary embarrassment, the United States might create a sinking fund for the national debt and invest in Texas bonds, for example, to pay a moderate interest, and to become due as the United States debt matures. Some Senator from New York might be found to advocate this scheme if the Blair bill fails.

But it is not mainly for these reasons that this bill is to be opposed. Nothing connected with education for twenty years is so surprising and gratifying as the growing schools of the South. This growth is both rapid and healthy, and the very effort that has been put forth to establish these schools is the best part of them. It is the very life and spirit, which gold can not buy. No schools worth anything can be set up till the people really want them; and when the people really want schools, schools they will have. There is no testimony on this question that at all equals in force and value that of George Armstrong, who for twenty years has devoted his life to the education of the negro race; and the changed attitude on this question of many educators, who have no motive for change except their own conviction, is a significant fact.

In the State of Maine, as late as 1846, this is how the case stood, and in some part of that and many other States it is so to-day: There was a little school-house, 20 by 30 feet in size. The neighbors themselves built it. A small sum of money, raised in the town by taxes, was apportioned to that district—about \$30—to educate thirty or forty pupils. To make this go as far as possible the neighbors would board the teacher in turn, and each in his turn would draw the wood for the fire in winter. A boy fourteen years of age went into the woods behind his father's house, cut down and trimmed trees, drew them with oxen to the school-house yard, and cut them into firewood, and then he built the fire for a week or two, till it was the turn of some other boy. Daniel Webster did about that. The people around there wanted a school; the boys and girls wanted to go, and they went.

If it is said that the Southern boy has not that degree of pluck and determination when he sets out to do anything, then I resent that slander; and I point to the boys in gray whom the boys in blue found no mean antagonists. If it be said that the negro is not so anxious for

an education as the white boy, then all the reports have been falsified. If there are spots in the South where the ignorance is so dense that not a spark exists which may be blown into a flame, then it may also be said that there are such spots all over the country, and they must be wiped out by wearing off the edges.

The method outlined a little way back is the way in which the school system has come up in the East and in the West. That spirit alone will bring it up in the South. But some one says, What will you do if the people do not want a school? This: It has long been known in some parts of the country that an intelligent community has the advantage in all that makes life worth living. Alabama knows to-day that she can not otherwise compete with Georgia, or Georgia with Pennsylvania. One town after another will find out wherein this superiority consists, and a healthy emulation will in the end do the work. It will not be in one year, nor in ten years—Blair bill or no Blair bill, but it will come, and all the sooner without the nursing. This bill proposes a vicious method of distribution. Instead of paying a premium on success and work done, it offers a reward for what has not been done—dollars for ignorance, and the more ignorance the more dollars. It pays a premium on mendacity—on the greater enumeration of illiterates; it offers a reward for the greatest exposure of shame. It stimulates the spirit of beggary, a spirit which we are too much encouraging everywhere; it discourages that spirit of self-help on which the very Republic rests.

The only thing that will remove the stain of polygamy is the presence in the community of a majority who do not believe in nor practise polygamy. The cure of ignorance in any State or county or hamlet is the presence of men who do not believe in ignorance. These men need not necessarily be bookish. They may grow up in the place and see its deficiency in comparison with other places; or they may be missionaries, as it were, from the outside. The school-master is a missionary. His reward is not in this world. If he has a fair salary, it is the prey of sharpers. If he takes a stand on a public or a moral question, he is scoffed at because of his humble calling. But it is his work that tells; and he, not politicians in high places, will be the regenerator of the South; and money, lavishly poured out for political purposes by politicians, through political channels, will not attract the men who will do this work; and it would not reach their pockets if it would so attract.

FEDERAL AID.

BY ALEXANDER HOGG,

Superintendent of Public Schools, Fort Worth, Texas.

MR. PRESIDENT: I am here to-night as an American citizen to give you my reasons for favoring Federal aid to our common schools. I certainly do not represent the State of Texas; neither have I been commissioned to speak for the City of Fort Worth; nor do Senators Coke and Reagan represent the State. They do represent upon this subject what they consider *should be* the views of the Democratic party of Texas—a party which seems to differ from the party of the same name in other States.

I read in the platform of the Democratic party of Virginia the following:

Seventh. The Democratic party founded and organized the public school system of Virginia, and has adopted every measure which has been passed to secure its efficiency; and we pledge the party to its continued support until every child in the Commonwealth, of whatever race or color, may secure the benefits of a free education, and we earnestly advocate liberal appropriations by the Federal Government out of its resources in aid of the education of the children of the several States, in proportion to illiteracy, in accordance with the provisions of the Blair bill, or some better measure.

“Or some better measure.”

Time and again have the opponents of this bill been asked to offer one suited to their tastes. But their only answer is an imaginary difficulty, “an encroachment of Federal power.”

I regard this measure as a national matter, as lying at the very basis of our Government, for it means in simple language, Shall the Government assist the States in the education of the illiterate masses?

I desire to discuss, and at no great length, the two forms of government best understood by our people. I regard a republican form of government as a *government for the people*; a monarchical form as the *people for the government*.

Said Louis XIV: “*L'État c'est moi.*” “I AM THE STATE.”

He was the State; the people had to obey. He dictated policies; he controlled the sword and the purse; if the people were protected, it was by his grace. So they knew enough for that. Despotism had no need to further educate them.

with the people themselves; nor can they be safe with them without information."

Is our press "free"? Can "every man"—can every voter—read the ballot he is casting?

Upon the appearance of the census of 1880, the statesmen, the patriots, the lovers, of our Republic became alarmed, and justly too, at our increasing illiteracy, not only among the youth, but even of the voters—those who control and shape the destiny of our free institutions. Hence I lay down this proposition:

If universal suffrage is based upon universal education, upon intelligence, upon the ability of the voter to read the name of his choice upon the selected ballot, there is a necessity and a demand for this aid, this relief, and at once.

I will not weary you with statistics, but will confine myself to selecting typical States, representing the different sections of the South, taking a State from the east, the west, and the south-west, of what are known as the Southern States.

From the census of 1880 I make the following deductions:

IN GEORGIA.

In 1870 there were illiterate white voters.....	21,899
In 1880	28,571
An increase of over 33½ per cent.	
In 1870 there were illiterate colored voters	100,557
In 1880.....	116,516
An increase of over 16 per cent.	

IN KENTUCKY.

In 1870, illiterate white voters	43,826
In 1880	54,956
An increase of over 25 per cent.	
In 1870, illiterate colored voters.....	37,889
In 1880.....	43,115
An increase of nearly 15 per cent.	

IN TEXAS.

In 1870, illiterate white voters	17,505
In 1880	33,085
An increase of nearly 90 per cent.	
In 1870, illiterate colored voters	47,235
In 1880.....	59,669
Increase of 26 per cent.	

I am not willing to pass this large increase of illiterate voters in Texas without explaining how it is that Texas should have gained in this downward movement so rapidly. Some of these voters are from old Virginia, some from the Carolinas, from Georgia, and not a few from Alabama, Mississippi, and Louisiana. This increase in illiteracy of the voting population is not confined alone to the States mentioned. The fact is that, with the exception of Delaware, the increase in illiterate voters in the South from 1870 to 1880 amounted to 187,671.

In this "downward" race it is a little singular that the white and colored have kept so close together that the education needed is not wholly for "the brother in black."

The exact figures on the subject: The increase during this decade (1870-80) of the illiterate white voters was 93,279; of colored 94,392. This is the status of the voters, the fathers; it is even worse when we look at the condition of the mothers. The census of 1880 shows that there are in Kentucky, above the age of twenty-one, 22.8 per cent. of white women who can not write, and in North Carolina there are 33.4 per cent. of white women who can not write.

If in the death of these fathers and mothers illiteracy should cease, we should have hope for the Republic; but upon investigation it will be found that illiteracy is not only increasing, but that it is an inheritance that multiplies with each succeeding year.

This can be best illustrated by the actual amounts which would be received under the provisions of the Blair bill were it to become a law. The following States, viz, Connecticut, Maine, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, New Jersey, New York, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, and Vermont, with a population of 12,724,322, would receive \$3,099,990, or 24 cents per capita. Texas, with a population by the same census of only 1,591,749, would receive \$2.44 per capita, or ten times as much as those great States. Alabama would receive seventeen times as much as these States. But there is still another large section, the great Northwest, composed of the States of California, Colorado, Iowa, Illinois, Indiana, Kansas, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, Ohio, Wisconsin, and Oregon, with a population of 18,462,723, that must be brought into this comparison. These States would receive \$4,486,860, or 24 cents per capita. Georgia, with a population of 1,524,180, would receive \$6,042,150, or nearly \$4 per capita, nearly seventeen times as much as all these great States.

Why is this?

Simply because Georgia has *seventeen times* as much illiteracy as all this vast territory teeming with millions of happy, prosperous, and intelligent people, who are proud to-day on account of the "grants of lands" from Virginia and the General Government for school purposes. Need more be said upon the necessity of this aid?

Can these States furnish this education?

I answer, they can not. They are doing all they can, and more proportionately than the more favored States, more according to their means than the foremost States in the Union.

North Carolina paid in 1880 upon \$160,000,000 taxable property. She realized for schools \$400,000, one dollar to every four hundred. Massachusetts paid the same year upon \$1,600,000,000, and the school tax amounted to \$4,000,000, or one dollar for four hundred of taxable property. That is, North Carolina pays for school purposes as much *ad valorem* as Massachusetts, with this terrible drawback—her popula-

tion being 300,000 more than that of Massachusetts, and scattered over seven times the territory of Massachusetts. Hence we find the schools in North Carolina are kept open only about three months of each year.

Compare two cities: The assessed value of the City of Charleston in 1860 was \$45,000,000; in 1880, \$21,000,000, a reduction of more than half, with the obligation to educate double the number of children.

Taxation in the City of Charleston in 1880 was $3\frac{1}{2}$ mills, State, county, and city, amounting only to \$61,000 for school purposes. Boston gives a total of $2\frac{1}{2}$ mills for all her school enterprises; Charleston solely for primary instruction. That is, Charleston gives for her schools of lowest grades nearly half as much again as Boston. Add to this burden the still greater, viz, Charleston pays a total tax of $2\frac{1}{4}$ cents, while that of Boston is only $1\frac{1}{4}$.

EDUCATION IS NOT A MATTER OF SENTIMENT.

The State of New York is worth in taxable property as much as all the Southern States. These expended on their schools in 1881 \$13,359,784; in 1881 New York expended \$9,936,662. The total taxable property in New York in 1880 was \$2,651,940,000; in the Southern States, omitting Missouri, \$2,370,923,269; or, New York is richer than the thirteen Southern States grouped in the census tables of 1880.

Now, to the practical question: Can the Southern States, with less than half the resources of 1860, educate double the number of children then knocking at the door?

If the State can not do this, who should?

I answer unhesitatingly, the General Government.

It is a well-established principle in ethics that all rights are resolvable into duties; that the rights of citizenship come with the duties of citizenship. If the State exercises a right, she assumes a reciprocal duty. The right, therefore, conferred by the Fourteenth and Fifteenth Amendments to the Constitution in enfranchising over six millions of negroes, the highest and most responsible political privilege, demands of the United States (the power conferring this right) the preparation of these people to exercise this franchise. It is now conceded by all thoughtful men that the first condition in this preparation for citizenship is intelligent education. Upon this law of ethical philosophy, and the fact of the franchise already conferred, is based the duty of the Government to make, and at once, full and ample preparation for the education, not only of the voter—the colored, but for all the enfranchised citizens of this free Republic, regardless of color or previous condition.

The results of the War enfranchising the colored man destroyed at the same time the means of educating the now illiterate white voter.

I argue that simple justice demands this aid, and that the South should insist on it as a matter of right.

After the Revolutionary War the whole country was without money, and Virginia ceded the great North-west to the General Government to relieve the country of the disasters of a successful war. From this Ter-

ritory came the States of Ohio, Illinois, Indiana, Michigan, and Wisconsin, all rich in taxable values and boasting the finest school systems of our country, the direct result of the "sixteenth section fund." That is, for the common schools of these rich and powerful States one thirty-sixth of the domain was set apart for the education of all the children of those States. May not Virginia, the "mother of States," demand from these daughters something to free her and hers from the dire scourge of illiteracy?

Again, of the proceeds of the public lands, of the \$88,000,000 (in round numbers) the Northern and Western States have received \$80,000,000, or ten times as much as the South. In the distribution of land for the agricultural colleges, the State of New York received over five times as much as Texas did, and realized twice as much per acre. Texas received 87 cents only per acre, California \$5, and Minnesota \$5.62 per acre. The same is true in this division in regard to all Southern States, as compared with the Northern and Western States.

The distribution of these lands to the several States and Territories was upon the basis of representation in Congress, really upon population. The North and West therefore received the largest part.

THE CONSTITUTION ANTICIPATES IT.

It is constitutional. The preamble, the proposition, runs thus: "*To provide not only for the general welfare,*" but to "*secure the blessings of liberty to ourselves and to our posterity.*"

Can liberty be preserved when the ballot is in the hands of a constantly increasing illiterate majority? If universal suffrage must continue, can we expect "*the blessings of liberty*" to be preserved by universal ignorance? Universal suffrage must rest upon universal education, or Thomas Jefferson's republic is a failure. I say the "proposition," the "welfare clause," is a mere "corollary." The right to make this grant is set forth in the very conception of the framers of this sacred instrument, anticipating as it were this very emergency.

A PRECEDENT NOT WANTING.

These historical expounders of the Constitution say:

"There is no precedent" for this giving of money directly to aid the States. "They [that is, Congress] can dispose of all the public land and for any purpose." They have forgotten the distribution of the "surplus revenue" in 1836. Some of the States then did not want any of it. Still they all accepted it. It did much good to all the States, especially in aiding the establishment of a successful system of free schools.

The last Congress gave, and direct from the public Treasury, \$15,000 each to every State agricultural college in the land, aggregating some half-million dollars. No Constitutional amendment is needed for this gift.

REQUIREMENTS OF THE BILL.

Still others talk about the "centralization" of the Government extending so far as to the "selection of teachers and text-books." For those who have been candid enough, although opposed to it, to confess they have never read the bill, I will make a few quotations. The object of the bill, as expressed in the caption, is "to aid in the establishment and temporary support of common schools."

It is not to establish any new system at all, nor to control in any shape the existing systems, for the branches named to be taught are the established studies in the public schools of all the States, and very nearly in the exact order mentioned as those required for certificates of teachers in the public schools of Texas. Section 6 provides: That the instruction in the common schools wherein these moneys shall be expended shall include the art of reading, writing, and speaking the English language, arithmetic, geography, history of the United States, and such other branches of useful knowledge as may be taught under local laws.

As to who shall receive and who shall disburse these funds, section 5 provides: "That the amount so apportioned to each State and Territory shall be drawn from the Treasury upon the monthly estimates and requisitions of the Secretary of the Interior as the same shall be needed, and shall be paid over to such officers as shall be authorized by the laws of the respective States and Territories to receive the same."

Now, Texas need not accept this at all. Section 1, fourteenth line: "Provided that no money shall be paid to a State, or any officer thereof, until the Legislature of the State shall by bill or resolution accept the provisions of this act, and such acceptance shall be filed with the Secretary of the Interior."

But with what show of right has she to prevent South Carolina, or Georgia, or Virginia from this aid?

I emphasize it! Texas does need it, and however unpleasant it may be to me, as well as to others, the facts justify my position.

The enrolment of the City of Fort Worth was increased twenty-five per cent., simply because the school authorities looked after it.

Had the same been done in the county, instead of an enrolment in city and county of 6,631, there would have been an enrolment of 8,289. But these are between the ages of eight and sixteen. Add to this the fact that the scholastic age should be between seven and twenty-one, and it can be easily shown that instead of an aggregate of a half-million in round numbers, there would be nearer one million of pupils entitled to education by the State of Texas.

But I prefer to let the authorities, the out-going State superintendent, speak for himself and for the State.

Superintendent Baker's last published report, pages 20 and 21, says under the head of taxation:

There is a widespread belief that the time is not distant when the State can discontinue the levy of a tax for the support of the public schools. Public speakers and the press have re-

peatedly asserted that a proper management of the permanent fund already on hand and the school lands not yet disposed of will supply a sufficient annual revenue for the schools. The people have been educated to look forward to the consummation of these expressed hopes, and have therefore been slow to acquiesce in such a tax as will always be necessary. In addition, they have from the same cause failed in a great majority of instances to levy the local taxes permitted by law. These promises by those who lead public sentiment are inexcusable, for the slightest investigation will disclose the fact that the time when the school tax can be discontinued without destroying the schools will never come.

The amount of permanent fund now on hand, including State, county, and railroad bonds and land notes, is about \$11,217,990. From this source a larger annual revenue than \$660,000 can not be expected. Of school lands not disposed of, there remain about 23,000,000 acres. If these lands were all disposed of at \$2 per acre, the sum realized therefrom added to the permanent fund on hand would give us about \$57,217,990. This sum at six per cent. per annum would bring us annually about \$3,433,000. It has been demonstrated that less than six dollars per capita will not maintain the schools for six months. Our scholastic age extends now only between eight and sixteen years. The scholastic age should include all between seven and twenty-one years of age, and the school term should not be less than seven months. In that case the natural increase of children would be about twelve per cent. yearly, and it must not be forgotten that under any sort of regulations years must elapse before even three-fourths of the school lands are disposed of. In this connection it may be well to state that many districts and communities are practically without school-houses. The schools are being taught in rented houses, in dwellings, in church houses, and public halls. The time has arrived for looking these matters squarely in the face, and the situation demands provision for present needs and active preparations for future wants.

If 23,000,000 acres even meant \$23,000,000, there would be some show of a fund to meet these "present needs" and "future wants."

But I wish to add just here the authority of a paper known and quoted in this capital as a journal of the best information as well as of the soundest views upon State questions, whether in Texas or any other State in this Union. The Galveston News, December 29, 1886, collates from the records at Austin the following table, and follows the same with its own commentary. The table shows the increase in scholastic population and the available fund during the nine years, viz :

Year ending August 31—	Scholastic population.	Amount apportioned.
1879	204,577	\$876,115.47
1880	226,439	685,640.15
1881	261,871	785,613.00
1882	266,729	900,000.00
1883	295,457	1,068,323.00
1884	311,134	1,399,873.50
1885	406,574	2,032,870.00
1886	452,588	2,353,925.60
1887	489,795	2,326,528.25

The foregoing table shows the rapid increase of population, and, what is more suggestive, it indicates what is to be expected in the next decade.

In the next ten years, if the population increases in the same ratio, it will require \$7,000,000 to run the schools on the same scale and for the same school term as now. As the term is not as long as required by the Constitution, and as the scholastic age will be probably changed to include all between seven and twenty-one years of age, it is reasonable to suppose that in 1897 over \$10,000,000 will be required to support the schools.

This makes true also my declaration in 1882:

The problem for the State of Texas to solve is, "How shall she educate a million of children in the next decade?"

Senator Reagan has time and again sent to the desk of the Secretary of the Senate and had read what Comptroller McCall has to say about the millions of acres of land set apart for the education of the children of Texas. Is he not literally carrying out the Scriptures—is he not, literally, "*When the children cry for bread, giving them a stone?*"

If the teachers of Texas are paid, if Texas can educate and is educating her children, why does the present superintendent of public instruction, Hon. O. H. Cooper, feel called on to write letters of condolence to the teachers, explaining why they have not been paid?

But in reciting these cases I am only looking at this thermometer. I am not speaking for or against Texas. I am simply quoting what men and papers in position have to say, leaving the reader to determine for himself if it is a fact that Texas does not need this aid. I said in the

"BOSTON INTERVIEW"

what I repeat here with emphasis, viz: "In the cities of Texas the schools are as well taught as in Boston or anywhere. Of course, these have not the brick and mortar, the fine school-buildings that you have, but we have the same people, with the same brains as your people, both as teachers and pupils.

"The trouble is in the country. Only sixteen per cent. of the school population are in the cities; eighty-four per cent. are in the country, in the sparsely-settled country.

"The cities are allowed to tax themselves, and the City of Fort Worth began in 1882 with the maximum, 50 cents on the \$100.

"I desire to add here that Fort Worth pays the same salaries to the colored teachers for teaching the colored pupils as she does to the white teachers for teaching white pupils." * * *

There is still another reason why the city schools are so successful, so flourishing. It is due to the moral, substantial, financial aid of

THE PEABODY FUND.

This trust was created by that large-hearted philanthropist, George Peabody, the author of the sentiment: "*Education, a debt due from present to future generations.*"

This trust has been wisely and judiciously managed. Its head, that Christian patriot, Hon. Robert C. Winthrop, has time and again seen fit to call attention to the necessity of Federal aid as the only source of sufficient power to meet the demands for the education of the increasing number of illiterates.

Hear what this grand old man had to say (annual meeting in New York, October, 1886):

It has now been more than six years since the attention of Congress was invoked by this board to the necessity of national aid to education. The admirable report of our associate, Mr. Stuart, of Virginia, as approved and signed by Chief Justice Waite

and Mr. Evarts, and as cordially adopted by us all, was dated on the 19th of February, 1880. * * *

I have no authority, and no disposition, to involve others of this board in any responsibility for the views which I may express on this subject; but the infirmities and contingencies of advanced age render me unwilling to omit the avowal once more of my own deep feeling that the safety of our free institutions imperatively demands the education of those ignorant masses on whom the elective franchise was so suddenly precipitated, and that this can only be accomplished by national aid—from the proceeds of the public lands or otherwise.

The Peabody Fund distributed during its last fiscal year \$62,365, the Sam Houston Normal Institute receiving \$3,000 of this amount. The amount from this fund to this institute has been as high as \$7,000 a year. The Peabody Fund has paid the salary of the principal, \$3,000 per annum, since the inception of the institute. For what the Peabody Fund and the State have done, the educational interest has received since the inauguration of the Sam Houston Normal Institute 745 graduates, and a matriculation of 1,203 students.

This same Peabody Fund inaugurated the public schools of Houston, by paying outright \$3,000 salary for the first superintendent; it has aided all the city schools of the State; has paid to Texas in aiding public school interests since 1870 \$120,150, and \$1,596,749 to the Southern States since 1868.

With all these lights before them, with such historic facts as I have enumerated, it does seem strange that Texas should oppose aid to others, to the States which gave her her real existence.

I use the term "*real existence*" advisedly and purposely.

And while those opposing this measure, specially the Senators from Texas, may feel under no obligations to the older States, I will hazard a reminder—a historical fact shall go into the records of this discussion. I wish to say to these gentlemen that there is an equity in this matter. That when Texas first asserted her independence of Mexico the United States purchased the Santa Fé territory, as it was known, at a cost of \$15,000,000, or Texas would have been without money to meet the ordinary expenses of the Republic. She would have enjoyed a penniless independence.

Again, upon annexation, the result of which was the Mexican War, the United States furnished of the regular Army, including marines, 42,545, and the States' volunteers numbering 73,776, or an aggregate of 116,321 men.

The total cost of this war, in blood and treasure, was: Killed outright, died of wounds, and wounded, 4,977 men, with an expenditure of \$73,877,163.32 to carry on the war.

There should be added to this the indemnity of \$18,000,000 to meet claims against the citizens of the Republic of Texas.

Of these volunteers, Louisiana furnished 7,947, nearly one-tenth of the whole and within 71 men of as many as Texas herself furnished. The Gulf States particularly were liberal in their contributions. They are now

the States that ask Federal aid. Louisiana and Arkansas are the geographical sisters of Texas.

Add to this the still further liberality upon the part of the United States. Texas, when coming into the Union, was allowed to reserve all her public lands. No other State had such a concession. Virginia had given hers away to aid the General Government. There is to me in the opposition of Texas to this measure an inexplicable inconsistency, and hence, with one other thought, or rather an incident, I shall close this address.

On the 6th of April, 1887, "Memorial Day" in Louisiana, there was unveiled in the city of New Orleans an equestrian statue of that distinguished hero, Albert Sidney Johnston. There were present from all parties, from all sections, statesmen and warriors. The chief of the Confederacy was there, and evinced by his presence and voice his high estimation and appreciation of the devoted and self-sacrificing hero of the "Lost Cause."

When Albert Sidney Johnston was upon the field of Shiloh and about to die, he called General Preston to him and said:

"Preston, when I die I want a handful of Texas earth upon my breast."

The State of Texas placed a "handful of Texas earth" upon his breast.

In January, 1867, the remains of that beloved soldier and citizen were brought to the city of Austin and interred in the State cemetery at the State's expense. Last summer in the Grand Opera House of Topeka, to one of the largest and most intelligent audiences I ever saw, I heard William Preston, the son, say (when to me he seemed taller and grander and more eloquent than ever before):

"*Teachers of the United States*: I pause, when I salute you by such a title, to do homage to the tremendous idea embodied in it. * * * When I was at Yale College, that student who distinguished himself by taking the *lowest* honor at the Junior Exhibition, received from his grateful classmates a 'wooden spoon' with appropriate remarks. * *

Now, Louisiana is the most illiterate State in the Union, and I therefore claim for her the 'wooden spoon' in the great Interstate Educational Exhibition. * * * But what better can we expect, with a body of voters forty-nine per cent. of whom can not read or write? These are our governors, the sovereign people. Must we not surely fall into the ditch when the blind lead the blind? It must be recollected, however, that this electoral body was not created by our own choice, but is the free gift of the Federal Government. * * *

"But we hear these young, rich, and prosperous States of the Northwest, whose educational systems have been based upon the bounty of the Federal Government, saying to us, 'If the Blair bill passes it will make mendicants of you all. Rely on yourselves alone.' To us, it seems that such an argument should not be used by the beneficiaries of simi-

lar grants, or that, before using it, they should at least, on a fair adjustment of equities, return to the United States Treasury the value of the lands received by themselves. They can never repay the untold benefits of a fair start in the race of life, the gift of education which opened the whole realm of thought to the humblest voter. Give us an equal showing. We do not ask it *in forma pauperis*, but as a right. I need not remind you that the very spot on which we are now standing was once a part of the territory of Louisiana."

Finally, fellow superintendents, if Texas does not need this aid, if Texas does not want it, if her Representatives in Congress can not conscientiously vote for this measure, let them step aside when the vote is taken. Let it become a law for the sake of old Virginia, of Georgia, Alabama, and our nearer relations, Arkansas and Louisiana, that are not only needing—demanding it of right, but are asking this aid through their Senators, their representatives in state and church, in school and college.

For the sake of "William Preston," the son of Albert Sidney Johnston, let this bill pass, become a law speedily, that something may be done to relieve our neighbors, aye our brothers and our sisters, of this increasing curse of illiteracy.



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BUREAU OF EDUCATION
CIRCULAR OF INFORMATION NO. 7, 1888

CONTRIBUTIONS TO AMERICAN EDUCATIONAL HISTORY
EDITED BY HERBERT B. ADAMS

No. 6

HISTORY OF EDUCATION

IN

FLORIDA

BY

GEORGE GARY BUSH, Ph. D.

WASHINGTON
GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE
1889

LETTER.

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR,
BUREAU OF EDUCATION,
Washington, D. C., November 8, 1888.

The Honorable the SECRETARY OF THE INTERIOR,
Washington, D. C.:

SIR: I have the honor to forward herewith a monograph upon the History of Education in Florida, by Prof. George Gary Bush, Ph. D. (Heidelberg).

This is one of the series of Contributions to American Educational History, edited by Prof. Herbert B. Adams, Ph. D., of Johns Hopkins University, the preparation of which you approved by your letter of March 29, 1888.

This monograph, though written to accompany the series of historical papers upon higher education in the United States, treats not alone of higher education in Florida. Its purpose is to set forth, in addition, the growth and development of the school system of the State, and to emphasize particularly the rapid advance made in all educational matters during the past decade.

Beginning with the earliest organized efforts to furnish instruction under the auspices of educational societies, and the attempt to introduce the system of Fellenberg, a review is given of the journals of the Legislature previous to the adoption of the Constitution of 1868, and such facts are presented as bear upon the subject of education. The legal organization of the school system, as it existed previous to the Civil War, is thus shown, together with the history of the school lands donated to the State, and the funds by which the schools were in part or wholly sustained.

The point is made that the early legislation with reference to schools, though effected largely by men of wealth, was for the benefit principally of the children of the poor.

Attention is called to the establishment in 1852 of the first public school to be sustained by a tax levied upon individual property, and (though no uniform system had been secured) to the great improvement made during this decade in the condition of the schools.

The War era passed, the elaborate system of common schools provided for in the State Constitution of 1868, and by legislative acts in 1869, is reviewed at length, and the substance of these provisions embodied in the monograph.

The favor with which the system was apparently received, and the rapidity with which the State board and the county boards were organized and entered upon their duties, are touched upon, and then a history is given of the development of the system, of the opposition which it later encountered, of the lack of competent teachers, as also of school buildings and school funds, until an era of brighter promise is reached. From that period, less than a decade ago, the progress made in public school education has been most satisfactory, and it is shown that the aggregate results will bear favorable comparison with the educational statistics of any of the States. Statistics are given which place in contrast the earlier and later years, and exhibit the rapid increase in the number of schools, in pupils, and funds. Mention is made of the valuable aid rendered to the State by annual contributions from the Peabody Fund and other agencies organized for like purposes.

The duties of the State Superintendent of Instruction and of the Board of Education, of the county boards and county superintendent, of the local trustees, and the teachers employed in the common schools are defined, and the relations they sustain to one another indicated.

The admirable work done by Northern societies, by the State, and by the agent of the Peabody Fund for the education of the freedmen, from the year in which the War closed until schools for colored children were placed upon an equal footing with the other schools of the State, is traced at some length, while the eagerness of the freedmen to learn and the progress they have made is noted, and a history of some of the more important schools established for them is briefly given.

During the past five years nothing else has done so much to elevate the standard of education in Florida as the efficient aid rendered by teachers' institutes and normal schools. These instrumentalities, which owe their success, in large measure, to the earnest labors and wise supervision of the present Superintendent of Public Instruction, are described and their importance to the existing educational system acknowledged.

Reference is next made to the academies established before the War, and to the present condition of the high schools, which, with a single exception, do not compare favorably with schools of like name in the older States.

With a statement of the public lands received from the National Government for the establishment of "two seminaries of learning" and an agricultural college and university, the paper takes up the history of secondary and higher education. This begins with an act of the Legislature in 1851, in which it is provided that "Two seminaries of learning shall be established, one upon the east, the other upon the

west side of the Suwannee River." These seminaries were located, the one at Ocala (later removed to Gainesville), the other at Tallahassee, and long remained the only public high schools in Florida. Historical sketches of these institutions are introduced, showing the work accomplished by them, their financial resources, the condition of the academic buildings and grounds, their educational appliances, and the character and attainments of their boards of instruction.

No public institution of Florida has passed through so many vicissitudes or suffered so much for the lack of friends as the State Agricultural College. The endeavor has been made in this monograph to present with impartiality the facts of its history, including the acts of various Legislatures with reference to its location, establishment, board of management, and finances; and evidence is adduced to show that it is now well worthy of the patronage of the State, possessing as it does an able and energetic faculty, commodious buildings and grounds, collections in natural history, mineralogy, and geology, a well-equipped laboratory, an experimental station furnished with excellent appliances for the study of agriculture, and a manual training school, which affords practice in working in wood and metal and the best facilities for draughting and designing. A page is devoted to the Florida University, with its meteoric appearance and brief history.

The remainder of the paper is devoted to a description of the colleges founded and sustained by various religious societies, to which are added a brief mention of the State Institute for the Blind and Deaf, and references to certain schools whose aim is to furnish a good secondary education.

Of the denominational colleges, Rollins College at Winter Park and De Land University at De Land, are placed in the first rank of the higher educational institutions of the State, and their history, as herewith presented, shows that in the quality of their work, the devotion of friends, and increasing resources, promise is given of a successful future.

I beg leave to recommend the publication of this paper as a Circular of Information, and to subscribe myself,

Very respectfully, your obedient servant,

N. H. R. DAWSON,
Commissioner.

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HISTORY OF EDUCATION IN FLORIDA.

The present educational system of Florida has been created since the formation of the Constitution of 1868. Previous to that period there was lack of organization, and the facilities afforded for obtaining an education were inadequate to meet the demands of a rapidly increasing population. During the past twenty years the material progress of the State, though very great, has not kept pace with the advance in all matters pertaining to education. This statement finds its confirmation principally in the history of the past five years, during which, not alone the public school system has been perfected, but educational advantages of the highest order have been placed within the reach of all.

The question may well be asked why, after the close of the Civil War, Florida did not proceed more quickly to the establishment of schools. It is not enough to say that it was due to her poverty, or to the vastness of her undeveloped territory and the sparseness of her population. There were other reasons of greater import, which grew out of the inheritance received from the established order before the War. This led the people to adopt ideas respecting education that had prevailed in the earlier history of the State. Moreover, it blinded their eyes to the fact that the leaven of a new spirit was at work, and, though many barriers were in the way of its rapid development, that nothing would be able to arrest permanently its progress. Here again was the old battle of age with impetuous but clear-sighted youth. The adherents of the new order were sure to win, but their success was greatly promoted by the addition to their number of a large body of settlers from other States, who brought with them broad views of the importance to the State of affording the opportunity for the highest intellectual training.

Thus the entire system of education was changed, and the benefits resulting therefrom have since continued to receive wide acknowledgment. The old order was well-nigh void of any system; the new order has adopted the most advanced methods known to our time. It has learned that the only way to have efficient schools is to provide efficient teachers. Hence, normal schools for both the white and colored population have been established and supported by the State, and teachers' institutes, under the supervision of the Superintendent of Public Instruction, are regularly held in many of the counties.

Until within a very brief period there were no studies pursued in the schools that would be classed under the higher education. By the strictest definition there is doubtless still very little collegiate instruction; but so great has been the advance in all educational work, and so hopeful is the promise for the future, that Florida well deserves to have her progress in this respect placed beside that of other and more favored States of the Union. More than in most other States is the history of higher education intertwined with that of the secondary and common schools, and very unsuccessful, as it appears to the writer, would be the attempt at the present time to write a history of the first which should not include a history of all.

FLORIDA EDUCATION SOCIETY.

In Volume I of the *American Annals of Education*, published in Boston in 1831, the following notice appears with reference to one of the earliest literary movements in Florida: "An important step has been taken by some friends of education—the organization of a society, arranged upon substantially the same plan as a State lyceum." This was called the Florida Education Society, and was organized at Tallahassee, January 23, 1831. Its object was to collect and diffuse information on the subject of education, and endeavor to procure the establishment of such a general system of instruction as would be suited to the wants and condition of the Territory. A membership fee was required, directors appointed, and monthly and tri-monthly meetings arranged for. Steps were also taken to organize branch societies, and the delegates and secretaries of the latter were required to report to the parent society all the information they could obtain relative to education in their respective districts. Later in the year the Governor of the Territory was authorized by law to appoint three commissioners, whose duty was to inquire into the condition of schools, the wants of the people respecting education, and ascertain the number of schools, qualifications of teachers, branches taught, mode of instruction, and the number of children favored with and destitute of the means of education. They were to report upon the "best system of education and the best means of carrying the system into full effect."

In the same year and as an outgrowth of the Florida Education Society, which had awakened such general interest throughout the State, a ladies' educational society was formed and a zeal for intellectual improvement manifested, such as is rarely seen in a newly settled region. At this time the agricultural or manual labor schools established by Fellenberg in Switzerland were finding many admirers in America. Through the recommendation of the education society a few of the citizens of Tallahassee decided to organize a "Fellenberg" school. In the *American Quarterly Register* for May, 1832, appears this record: "Five individuals have agreed, if it can be done at an expense within *their means*, to purchase a small tract of land and form a small manual

labor school somewhere in the neighborhood of Tallahassee. A teacher is to be employed to take charge of the *limited* number of pupils; suitable buildings are to be erected for the accommodation of the teacher and pupils, who are to board together, with as little connection as possible with the inhabitants in the vicinity. The pupils will be required to devote a certain number of hours daily to agricultural and mechanical employments of the simplest kinds. No pupil will be admitted except with the consent of the teacher and each of the proprietors, nor suffered to remain in the school unless he submits to all its regulations. The studies, at the commencement, are to be confined to the usual branches of a good English education, including mechanics, botany, chemistry, etc."

This project met with such favor that between six and seven hundred dollars were subscribed, to be paid annually, besides a free offering of as much land as might be needed. It was thought that, if the lands set apart by Congress for a seminary and for common schools could be appropriated to the use of the Fellenberg schools, ample funds would soon be in hand to inaugurate successfully the new system.

The branch of the educational society established in St. Augustine reported an "alarming neglect of education in the Territory since the cession;" that by most the matter was viewed with indifference; and that the obstacles which the scattered population presented rendered the establishing of even a limited system of common schools extremely difficult, if not impracticable. There were then (1832) 341 children between the ages of five and fifteen, but only 137 of these were receiving any school instruction. An attempt was made to establish a free school, and though at first greatly encouraged, there is no evidence that either this project or the more important one at Tallahassee was ever carried to a successful termination. At this time meetings resembling lyceums were held in St. Augustine for discussion and mutual improvement, which called forth "the resources of every individual for the benefit of the community."

Unfortunately the ardor of this progressive spirit of which we have spoken seems to have been soon quenched. In a brief time the Florida Education Society and its auxiliaries ceased to exist, and no others were established in their place.¹ Could some wise system of education have found encouragement and been developed so as to have kept pace with the growth of the Territory and State, it might have secured for Florida an educational rank not inferior to that of any commonwealth in the Union.

EARLY LEGISLATION AFFECTING PRIMARY EDUCATION.

A review of the journals of the Legislature, previous to the adoption of the Constitution of 1868, will help us to form a just estimate of the

¹ A Historical Society was organized in St. Augustine in 1856, but it was short-lived. This is much to be regretted, as Florida furnishes a fruitful field for historical research.

interest taken by the people of Florida in the matter of education. In December, 1835, while Florida was still a Territory, "the register of the land office was charged with the duty of selecting and securing the various lands granted by Congress for schools, seminaries, and other purposes." By act of March 2, 1839, three school trustees were ordered to be chosen in each township. They were to have the care of the sixteenth section lands in their township, lease the same, and apply the rents or profits for the benefit of the common schools; and, in case such schools did not exist, it was their duty to organize and support them. In March, 1843, these duties were intrusted to the sheriffs of counties, who were commissioned to give special care to the education of the poor children of the county. But the legal organization of the school system, as it existed previous to the Civil War, was substantially effected by the act of 1839, already referred to, to which amendments were made in 1840, 1844, and 1845. As amended, the *old school law* provided not only for township trustees to look after the raising of a revenue from the sixteenth section school lands, and its application to the establishment and support of common schools, but also for at least a partial supervision of the acts of these trustees by the judges of probate, who were to serve as superintendents of common schools in their respective counties. They were to see that the sixteenth section lands were held inviolate for the use of schools; to receive and appropriate the money derived from them; and attend to all matters connected with the advancement of education. The trustees were required to report to the judges, on or before the first Monday in December of each year, the number of teachers employed in the township, the number of children of both sexes, the different branches taught, and such other information as might pertain to the welfare of the schools. The judges were to consolidate the returns and forward their report to the Secretary of State, by whom it was laid before the General Assembly of Florida. Beyond the revising of these reports by the Secretary it does not appear that the State exercised any supervision over her schools, or that there was any law which required that the schools established out of the proceeds of the township school lands should be free to all, or any provision for a tax on property or persons for their support. It is probable that they were of brief annual duration, and attended mainly, if not wholly, by children of the poor, except in those cases where the latter were placed in other schools and their tuition fees paid out of the public school fund.

In 1849 an act was passed to provide for the establishment of common schools, whose doors should be open only to white children. In the same year the Legislature provided that the school fund should consist of the proceeds from the school lands, and five per cent. of the net receipts from other lands granted by Congress; also the proceeds from all estates, real or personal, escheating to the State, and from all property found on the coast or shores of the State. In 1850 the counties were

authorized to provide by taxation for the support of schools, but the amount levied could not exceed four dollars annually for each child of school age. The school fund was also enlarged by all moneys received by the State from the sale of slaves under the act of 1829.

THE SCHOOL LANDS.

It was not the original intention that the sixteenth section lands should be sold and merged into a common fund, but rather that by rental, or by the interest on the purchase-money if sold, such section should confer its benefits upon the township alone to which it belonged. Accordingly the Governor and Legislative Council were authorized by act of Congress to take possession of the school lands thus reserved, and rent or lease them for the support of common schools in the township; but as far as can be ascertained only one township ever organized to get the benefit of the act. As the sixteenth section lands that were valuable were, in the days preceding the abolition of slavery, mostly in the hands of men who had no need of assistance in educating their children, and who were, as a rule, too proud to receive it; and as, in other townships less fertile, where the population was sparse and the settlers generally poor, these lands had little intrinsic value, and no value at all for the purpose named in the act, the result was that this law wrought injustice, since its benefits accrued to the rich and not to the poor. The Legislature, therefore, directed that the lands thus reserved should be sold and the fund consolidated. This act, done in most part by men of wealth, was highly commendable, as it was practically a concession by them for the benefit of the poor. Though considerable time was consumed in making the transfer and patenting these lands to the State, yet as early as the years 1852-54, on the journals of the Legislature, will be found the biennial report of the State Superintendent of Public Instruction, with full statistics respecting the school fund, the sales of school lands, the investment of the proceeds, and the apportionment of the interest among the counties according to the number of children of school age. The apportionment, however, was so small, amounting to only thirty cents per capita, that it was probably of little practical benefit anywhere. At first few counties organized so as to put the school system into operation, and only two contributed anything from the county treasury to augment the sum received from the State. By a revision of the common school law in 1853 the apportionments were placed in the hands of county commissioners, who were authorized to take from the county treasury such sum as they might deem necessary for the support of the schools. As these officials were not required to account to any one for their disposition of the fund, it generally happened that it was distributed among the teachers of private schools according as their necessities demanded. It may readily be inferred that in the midst of this chaos of affairs with respect to administration, there was as yet no common school system. But still, even in these years there

was some progress, for though the sales of land might be small, yet they formed the basis of a fund, inviolate and perpetual, which was to increase from year to year and lend more and more help towards the education of the children of the State.

TAXATION FOR THE SUPPORT OF SCHOOLS.

As early as 1852 another movement had been set on foot by the Hon. D. S. Walker, since Governor of the State, and now Judge of the Circuit Court. By him the idea was conceived of a public school for white children that should be sustained by a tax levied upon the property of the city where he resided (Tallahassee). Through his influence such a school was established and successfully conducted, and this is worthy of mention, since it was among the earliest attempts in the South to support schools by taxation.

In 1858 the Superintendent reports that there were 20,855 children of school age; that the amount of interest apportioned to the counties was \$6,542.60; and that "a few of the counties were taking hold of the matter of schools and engaging teachers, but usually for a term of only three months." He states it as his conviction that public schools supported by taxation were not only superior to private ones heretofore patronized, but that the cost to the individual tax-payer did not equal half the amount of his former tuition fees; and that in addition to this, and of even greater value, was the fact that nearly all the children were in school. It is evident from the history of Florida during the decade ending with 1860, that a sentiment favorable to free public schools was developing, and that it was in great part checked, or its further growth rendered impossible, by the events of the following years. Still, even during the Civil War, the State and its officers earnestly devised plans and labored for the perfecting of a system of public schools; yet little progress could be made, as the thoughts and energies of the people were absorbed in the conflict impending. In the Constitution of the State framed immediately after the close of the War an article was incorporated which was designed to secure to the schools of the State the income derived from the "school lands." But the turbulent days of reconstruction were unfavorable to the development of any deep interest in education, and, accordingly, no effective legislation with reference to schools was secured until the adoption of the Constitution of 1868, and the passage of the school law of 1869.

THE NEW SCHOOL LAW.

According to this law the State assumed the education of all her children without distinction or preference. The Legislature, as authorized by the Constitution, established a uniform system of common schools. It provided for a superintendent of public instruction, whose term of office should be four years. It ordered the forming of a school fund out of the following sources: "The proceeds of all lands that have been or may

hereafter be granted the State by the United States for educational purposes; appropriations by the State; the proceeds of lands or other property which may accrue to the State by escheat or forfeiture; the proceeds of all property granted to the State when the purpose of such grant shall not be specified; all moneys which may be paid as an exemption from military duties; all fines collected under the penal laws of the State; such portion of the per capita tax¹ as may be prescribed by law for educational purposes; and 25 per centum of the sales of public lands which are now or may hereafter be owned by the State." Only the income derived from this fund could be used, and this must be applied to aid in the maintenance of common schools and to the purchase of books and suitable apparatus. The law further provided that there should be an annual school tax of not less than one mill on the dollar of all taxable property in the State; moreover, that each county should be required to add to this for the support of schools a sum not less than one-half the amount apportioned to each county for that year from the income of the common school fund.² The income of the fund was ordered to be distributed among the several counties in proportion to the number of children residing therein between the ages of four³ and twenty-one years;⁴ but the neglect of any school district (*i. e.*, of any county) to maintain a school or schools for at least three months in the year should work a forfeiture of its portion of the common school fund during such neglect. It provided also for a board of education, whose duties were to be prescribed by the Legislature.⁵

The school law of 1869 was received with great favor, and no time was lost in putting it into operation. Nearly every member of the Legislature had been, or now became, its earnest advocate, and even before they left for their homes they took steps to initiate the work of organization in every county. The law required that State and county superintendents be appointed by the Governor and approved by the Senate;

¹ By the Constitution of 1886 the fines and the per capita tax, in addition to the county's proportion of the income from the State school fund and the "mill tax," are ordered to form a part of the county school fund, to be disbursed by the county board of public instruction "solely for the maintenance and support of public free schools."

² Art. XII, Sec. 8, of the Constitution of 1886 orders that each county be required to "assess and collect annually for the support of public free schools therein a tax of not less than 3 mills nor more than 5 mills on the dollar of all taxable property in the same."

³ By the new Constitution six and twenty-one years.

⁴ Exception was to be made "in favor of small schools in neighborhoods where the number of youth who should attend is small and their average attendance at school ranges high."

⁵ This, with a few modifications, is still in force, having proved itself one of the best school laws of this country. It was largely framed by Hon. C. Thurston Chase, State Superintendent of Schools, after he had made a study of the different school systems of the older States, and consulted with some of their most eminent educators and school officers.

that the board of instruction for each county, to consist of five members, be recommended by the representatives of the county and appointed by the State Board of Education on the nomination of the State Superintendent. As soon, therefore, as recommendations for boards of public instruction were received, as provided by law, the appointments were made. Where county superintendents had been appointed and had qualified, organizations were speedily effected. In other cases temporary organizations were formed, and the names of persons suitable for superintendents sent in to the Governor for appointment. Thus, in a brief time, after long years of waiting, Florida inaugurated a system of education.

TIME NEEDED TO DEVELOP THE NEW SYSTEM.

But it must not be supposed that this important movement met with no opposition. To some, any system, or lack of system, when shielded by the usage of years, comes to have a value and sacredness out of all proportion to its rightful claims. Thus it happened that, through bitter opposition on the part of a few, the benefits to be derived from the school law were not speedily realized. The Commissioner for 1870 reports that the new system "has made little or no progress, notwithstanding the ability and utmost endeavors of the newly-appointed Superintendent;" and adds that "education encounters fearful obstacles." Less than one-fifth of the children and youth between four and twenty-one years were then enrolled in the public schools. The Superintendent, in a more hopeful spirit, says that the schools are rapidly gaining favor with the people, and "there is every reason to believe that the system will triumph, and, becoming a part of the permanent policy of the State, will endure to bless through party changes and successive administrations." The agent of the Peabody Fund says of it in 1872: "During the three years of its history it has had unusual difficulties to contend with, but a great advance has been made, and it is gaining rapidly in popular esteem. What some of those difficulties were can be understood when it is known that in many counties in 1869 there was an almost total lack of school-houses; added to this was the small number of competent teachers and the insufficiency of the school funds. One county reports that previous to 1869 "the schools were kept in small cabins, out-houses, and sometimes in dwellings, by itinerant teachers who scarcely ever professed to teach anything higher than Webster's Spelling-Book, and arithmetic as far as compound numbers."

During the years 1868 and 1869 the General Government, at an expense of \$52,600, caused some twenty school buildings to be built, which accommodated about 2,500 pupils. In the decade beginning with the year 1870 many of the more prominent towns of the State of Florida (reaching one year to the number of sixteen) received from the Peabody Fund donations for the support of schools, varying in amount from two hundred to one thousand four hundred dollars each.

In the report of schools for 1874 (a very able and suggestive paper by the Secretary of State, the Hon. Samuel B. McLin, who was acting Superintendent), the school question is very fully considered. "Half a decade ago," he says, "there were no schools outside a few of the larger towns or cities. We have now nearly six hundred, scattered throughout the State. They are springing up by the highways and by-ways as pledges of future improvement and progress. * * * This is a revolution that cannot go backward. It creates its own momentum. It moves by a power within itself, and strikes out the light and heat of its own vitality." A law enacted in 1872 provided that all elementary schools should be graded, and divided into primary, intermediate, and grammar, and that the branches taught be confined to spelling, reading, writing, arithmetic, geography; and history; but up to 1877 little regard had been paid to the law, except by such schools as were aided by the Peabody Fund. These were uniformly graded and the school year lengthened to ten months. In the years following 1877 the system of grading was rapidly adopted, and it now generally prevails.

The record of the progress made by the public schools, more particularly since 1880, forms a very bright page in the history of Florida. Each year has chronicled a steady advance, and the aggregate results will bear favorable comparison with the educational statistics of any other State. The Superintendent has been able to report a gratifying progress in nearly every particular; in the growth of the schools in public favor; in the increased number of schools and school children; in improved buildings and enlarged funds; in a more intelligent and better instructed body of teachers; in a lengthened school year; and in a ratio of daily attendance which, if correctly reported, probably can not be surpassed in any of the older States.¹

STATISTICS.²

The school statistics during the earlier history of Florida are not very satisfactory, being apparently very incomplete. In 1840, five years before the admission of the State into the Union, there were 18 academies and grammar schools, with 732 pupils, and 51 common schools, with 925 pupils. The census report of 1850 gives the population of Florida as 87,000, of whom 47,000 were whites, and states that there were then 10 academies and 69 common schools, with 3,129 pupils. In 1860 (population 140,000) there were 97 public schools, with 2,032 pupils, and 138

¹ The school year consists properly of three terms of three months each, each month having twenty-two teaching days. In order to receive aid from the State fund the school must be in session for at least three months. Where schools are kept only for this short period in the year (and this until recently has been very generally the case outside of the villages) the ratio of daily attendance is doubtless much higher than it would be if the school were continued throughout the year.

² For fuller statistics the reader is referred to the census reports, and to the Annual Reports of the Commissioner of Education since 1867.

academies and other schools, with 4,486 pupils. The income from the school fund was \$22,386. In 1872, three years after the inauguration of the school system, with a population of about 195,000, the number of public schools was 400, and the expenditures in support of them \$80,000. The permanent school fund amounted to \$300,000. In 1880 the population had increased to 269,493 and the number of public schools to 1,131. In 1883-84 there were:

Youth of school age ¹	66,798
Youth enrolled in public schools.....	58,311
Average daily attendance.....	35,881
Number of public schools.....	1,504
Number of school-houses.....	1,160
Expended during the year for public schools.....	\$172,178
Value of school property in the State.....	\$210,115
Permanent school fund.....	\$429,984

In 1887, as follows:

Youth of school age enrolled.....	82,453
Average daily attendance.....	51,059
Number of public schools.....	2,104
Number of teachers:	
White.....	1,739
Colored.....	579
	2,318
Expended during the year for school purposes.....	\$449,299.15
Value of school buildings and grounds owned by the State and counties..	\$521,500.00
Value of school furniture.....	\$20,399.00
Permanent school fund ²	\$500,000.00

By the close of 1888 the number of public schools had increased to 2,249, the number of teachers to 2,413, of whom 620 were black and 1,793 white, while the number enrolled and the average daily attendance remained about the same as stated for the year 1887. The amount received from the school tax, from the common school fund, and from the State one-mill tax, and expended for the support of schools during the year, was \$484,110.23. The number of private schools and colleges in the State, as reported by the counties, is 137.

It will be seen that the increase in the number of schools since 1884 is 745. The gain for the same period in the total attendance is over 24,000, and the increase in the value of school property (not reported above for 1888) is not less than \$335,000.

¹ The enumeration of children and youth between the ages of four and twenty-one years and also between the ages of six and twenty-one years must be taken every four years by the county tax assessor.

² In addition to this there remain 40,000 acres of the lands donated to the State for common schools, which have an estimated value of \$1.25 per acre. It should be remembered also that Florida expended, during the Civil War, the principal of her common school fund and secondary funds for uniforms, ammunition, and other purposes," and that she came out of the great struggle without other means for the reorganization of her schools than what could be derived from the lands remaining unsold and from the taxation of the people for purposes of education.

As an indication of the interest taken in education, it may be said that thirty-four out of the forty-five counties in the State levy the *maximum* tax of five mills toward the support of schools.

PRESENT OUTLOOK.

Much of the credit for this remarkable advance in public school education since the beginning of 1884 is due to the Hon. A. J. Russell, the present efficient Superintendent of Public Instruction. In a paper prepared by him in 1886, he makes use of the following language: "Thus we have reached a climax of which the people may be gratefully proud, and confidently hope for the very best results upon the next generation of its citizens. School-houses, suitably furnished, are now scattered in neighborhoods in most of the counties, while there is not a county in the State not organized in accordance with the school law, having good schools in operation for both white and colored children, the latter receiving the self-same provisions for their tuition as the former."

In his annual report for 1887 to the Governor he says: "There has been a steady growth of interest throughout the State in the public schools, a constant advance in their efficiency, while a most healthful *esprit de corps* animates the teachers as a rule, a result of which is that much better work has been accomplished. Patrons are becoming more identified with the schools and manifest a deep and lively interest in their encouragement and success.

"It can be safely said there are but few children who live in isolated places now in the State to whom the door of the school is not opened without fee or hinderance, of any race or condition of the population, and there is every reason for believing there are comparatively very few of the youth of school age who are not able to read.

* * * * *

"While the people of Florida may congratulate themselves upon their school system, there are localities where great room exists for improvements and progress, but I find the spirit and desire for such advancement present with all concerned, and I have no fear but in a short time these counties will move upon the line and take their places in the front rank.

"The increase in the number of schools is very gratifying, also the increase in the number of teachers employed. New and neat, comfortable school-houses have been built all over the State, new and modern improved sittings have been supplied, and much closer attention is given in many parts of the State to the hygiene, ventilation, and light of the school-room and grounds."

SCHOOL OFFICERS AND THEIR DUTIES.

The *State Superintendent of Public Instruction*, who was formerly appointed by the Governor with the consent of the Senate, is now elected

quadrennially by the qualified voters of the State. He is required to have the oversight, management, and charge of all matters pertaining to the public schools, school buildings, grounds, furniture, libraries, text-books, and apparatus; to furnish school officers with the necessary blanks for official returns; to provide plans and specifications for constructing and furnishing school buildings; to call meetings of county superintendents and other school officers; to grant certificates to teachers, and fix the grades and standards of qualifications; to apportion to each county its share¹ of the school funds of the State; to decide questions of appeal, or refer the same to the Board of Education; and also to preserve educational and historical documents and specimens of natural history.

The *State Board of Education* is a corporate body, with full power to perform all corporate acts for educational purposes. It is composed of the Governor, Secretary of State, Attorney-General, State Treasurer, and State Superintendent of Public Instruction,—the Governor being president and the Superintendent of Public Instruction, secretary.. It has charge of the school lands and school funds of the State; to it is intrusted the organization of the State University; it audits the accounts of the Superintendent, removes subordinate officers; and to it the Superintendent refers questions and appeals. It has also a co-operative power in the organization of the department of instruction for the diffusion of knowledge throughout the State.

Each *county board of public instruction*, of which the county superintendent is secretary and agent, is also a body corporate, and may take and hold real and personal property for educational purposes. It has charge of all school property in the county; locates and maintains schools when needed; examines candidates, and grants teachers' certificates which are valid in the county.

The *county superintendent*, who is now chosen by the people, is "the necessary agent between the State Superintendent and the county schools, and in his hands are the details of the whole organization. He is the medium through which all the operations of the entire system are carried on." He must familiarize himself with the needs of all the schools in the county, confer with and aid the teachers in their work, advise with the patrons of each school about the selection of suitable persons for trustees, over whom also his supervision extends. He is required to visit the schools in the county at least once during each term, and to him is often delegated by the county board the examination of teachers and other duties belonging to said board.

District trustees are appointed by the county boards, and have like charge and responsibility within their narrower spheres. It is their

¹ The Superintendent apportions the interest on the school fund among the counties according to the number of children of school age, but the county boards apportion according to the average attendance of pupils between the ages of six and twenty-one years. By law of February, 1885, the tax collector pays over to the county treasurer the "mill tax," to be disbursed with the other school funds.

duty to visit the schools within their jurisdiction at least once in each month, and make quarterly reports to the county superintendent of their condition and efficiency; to co-operate with the teacher in maintaining order, and to suspend or expel pupils for misconduct. Usually a single school selects three trustees, but oftentimes but one, and for groups of schools from two to five trustees are sometimes appointed. Their appointment is made on the recommendation of patrons, and their term of office cannot exceed four years.¹

In choosing teachers, whenever the selection is not made by the trustees, it is customary to give notice to the patrons of the school that an election for that purpose is to be held. The candidate who receives the most votes is selected, unless he or she is found to lack the requisite qualifications. In cases where differences arise between school officers and teachers the matters in dispute are submitted to arbitration, or an appeal is taken to the county board, from which an appeal may be made to the State Board. The authority to grant teachers' certificates is vested in the State Board, Superintendent of Public Instruction, county boards, and county superintendents when authorized by county boards. The certificates received from the county boards are valid for one year in the county in which they are granted. Certificates issued by the State Superintendent are of three grades, and are valid in any part of the State for the time specified therein. A diploma from a normal college confers equal privileges and power. The laws of Florida require that "teachers licensed by State or county authorities must teach deportment and morals, and must inculcate the principles of truth, honesty, and patriotism, and the practice of every Christian virtue, and they may give instruction one half-day in each week in some branches of needle-work and manual labor."

THE EDUCATION OF THE FREEDMEN.

Among the first agencies employed in the effort to educate the freedmen were two which were under the control of colored people in the Northern States, and were known as the African Civilization Society, and the Home Missionary Society of the African M. E. Church. These societies established schools at different points in the Southern States, a few of which were opened in Florida, and were of much value in laying the foundation for the education of the colored race. Other northern societies had their representatives here, the New York branch of the American Freedmen's Union Commission being foremost. Through these different agencies about half of the colored schools of this period

¹ According to the Constitution of 1886, "the Legislature may provide for the division of any county or counties into convenient school districts; and for the election biennially of three school trustees, who shall hold their office for two years, and who shall have the supervision of all the schools within the district." It may provide, also, for the levying of a limited district school-tax whenever the qualified electors who pay a tax on real or personal property shall vote in favor of such levy. "Any incorporated town or city may constitute a school district."

were sustained. Nearly as many more were taught by freed persons who had acquired a little learning in their bondage, and were anxious to elevate the condition of their race. In all, some thirty colored schools were in successful operation at the close of 1865. In January, 1866, a bill was introduced into the Legislature providing for the education of the children of the freedmen, and levying a tax of one dollar each upon "all male persons of color between the ages of 21 and 45" years, and a tuition fee of fifty cents a month to be collected from each pupil. As soon as this became a law, a commissioner was appointed by the Governor with authority to organize colored schools, and enlist in his work the co-operation of all good citizens. This officer was everywhere welcomed and aided by the planters of the State; and during the first year he organized twenty day schools and thirty night schools. The latter were intended specially for adults, who often formed weird groups as they studied their books around the changing and uncertain light of the pine fire. There were enrolled in these schools 2,726 pupils, and, in addition, as many as 2,000 were thought to be receiving private instruction. In this movement for the education of the freedmen Florida is believed to have taken precedence of all the other Southern States.

During 1866 and 1867 the number of colored schools rapidly increased. The freedmen, in many instances, erected school-houses at their own expense, and heartily seconded the action of the Legislature. And just at this point the Freedmen's Bureau proved itself the efficient friend and ally of the colored people. This it did, principally, by aiding in the promotion of "school societies," whose object was to acquire by gift or purchase the perfect title to eligible lots of ground for school purposes. Each of these lots, not less than an acre in extent, was to be vested in a board of trustees. The Bureau also supplied lumber and other materials necessary to the construction of school buildings. This work was ably seconded by many landed proprietors, who furnished school lots and otherwise rendered moral and material support. But this prosperity was soon checked by reason of the "hard times," and the unsettled political condition of the State which followed after the War. For the four years from 1865 to 1869 the largest number of schools was seventy-one and the largest number of teachers sixty-four. Of the teachers one-half were white. The average number of pupils in attendance was thought to be about 2,000. The studies were "the alphabet, easy reading, advanced reading, writing, geography, arithmetic, and higher branches. The cost of these schools was reported to be, for 1867, \$21,000, and for 1868, \$19,200, of which amounts \$600 were contributed each year by the freedmen. At a later period we find the Freedmen's Bureau rendering aid by paying a rental of ten dollars each on seventy-five school-houses, which were scattered through nine counties. In reality this money was devoted to the payment of teachers' salaries.

In the common school law of 1869 no reference is made to the *complexion* of the children for whom it was framed, and henceforth it be-

came the business of the State to see that equal school privileges were accorded to the two races. That progress among the colored people was for many years slow is evident from the annual school reports. The teachers employed were largely men and women of their own race, who, having had very inadequate opportunities for education, often brought the schools into disrepute. But, as the years passed, one improvement followed another, until, as early as 1878, the Superintendent reports that the colored people expressed themselves satisfied that justice had been done them. To-day their children are taught in separate schools, but they have the same help from the school funds, the same supervision, and are subject to the same regulations as those of the white race. Teachers' institutes and normal schools have been provided for both, but it is yet too soon to expect that in general the qualifications of the colored man will compare favorably with those of the white man. As the former is still the teacher of the colored children, these must to a certain extent suffer loss. It is to be hoped, however, and from the superior advantages now offered to colored teachers it is fair to conjecture, that this inequality will ere long be remedied.

Secondary Colored Schools.—Lincoln Academy at Tallahassee and Union Academy at Gainesville were the first schools established with the view of furnishing instruction to colored youth in advanced studies. Some time after their organization an appeal was made to the agent of the Peabody Fund to contribute to their support. This was granted, and at first \$300 was given annually to each academy, but on the condition that it should be used principally for the training of teachers. After 1879 the amount was increased to \$400, and this, or the former sum, continued to be donated for many years. In 1881 Lincoln Academy had an efficient corps of teachers, consisting of a principal and four assistants, with two hundred and fifty pupils, and the school year extended through nine months.

The Legislature of 1886 ordered the establishment of a normal college for colored youth. This was opened in Tallahassee in 1887. Its history will be given in connection with the normal college for whites. Probably the best equipped colored school in Florida is the public school in Jacksonville. In addition to its regular work an industrial department has been recently added. This was brought about as follows: During 1887, through the earnest efforts of the State Superintendent, seconded by the county board of Duval County and the colored people of the City of Jacksonville, the necessary steps were taken to secure from the agent of the Slater Fund an annual appropriation of \$1,000 to be used for the teaching of the industrial arts. Through the commendable enterprise of the colored people a suitable building was speedily erected on the grounds of the graded school above referred to, and this was opened for instruction in October a year ago. "Eight sets of wood-working tools were procured, work benches built, and everything in readiness. A teacher was employed, a white man, a practical archi-

tect and draughtsman, and mechanic and builder, and of excellent character and qualification. Instruction in the nature and use of the various tools, and in the working of wood was commenced for the boys on the first floor; and the girls were taken to the second floor, where needle-work, cutting, darning, and other needful work of the kind are taught, and where it is designed that cooking, laundry work, and other things qualifying the good housewife shall be taught." Two hours each day, so appointed as not to interfere with his studies in the school, are spent in this way by each pupil, and the results have already been most satisfactory. This, it is hoped, will be but the beginning of the adoption of industrial training in the schools of the State.

Cookman Institute—A normal and biblical school for colored students.—This Institute was founded and is sustained by the Freedmen's Aid Society of the Methodist Episcopal Church. Its mission is set forth in the following language: "The public schools need a better class of teachers, and the pulpits a more intelligent ministry. * * * Cookman Institute supplies a great want of many of the colored people whose future largely depends upon our efforts. We have enlarged our plans to meet the demand and hope to fill teachers' positions and pulpits with more efficient workmen." The president of the school says: "Our graduates honor themselves in their success in life, and show what education will do for the people when extended courses of study are pursued. The lawyer, the doctor, the minister, comes to be a man of power when he avails himself of such facilities for study."

The school, which is open to both sexes, was founded in 1872, in Jacksonville, and had as its object the education and elevation of the needy and neglected masses among the freed people. Since its founding it has made a great advance in the quality of the instruction given and in its courses of study. The growth of its material interests has been no less pleasing. Beginning in a "little old church," it finds itself to-day in a commodious brick building, free of debt, which is capable of accommodating 50 boarders and 150 day pupils. The school year continues through nearly seven months, viz, from the second week in October to the close of April. The number of pupils in attendance during the year 1886-87 in the academic and normal departments was 167. The courses of study seem well adapted to the needs of the pupils. There is a thorough course in English, a course in history, and a four years' course in the following branches: In mathematics, ending with the sixth book in geometry; in Latin, in which the most advanced authors read are Cicero and Virgil; and in descriptive and physical geography, to which latter are to be added the primary principles of botany, geology, mineralogy, and natural history. Besides these studies there are in the curriculum political economy, pedagogy, mental science, philosophy, and rhetoric. The necessary expenses for tuition and board are very small, and none who have an ambition to obtain an education *ought* to feel debarred on this account. The president, Rev. S. B. Dar-

nell, has been at the head of the Institute during the whole of its history, and deserves much credit for his wise management of its affairs. There are seven others associated with him in the board of instruction.

A college for colored youth has also been established, by the Baptist Missionary Society of the North, at Live Oak, in Savannah County, which is said to be doing good work. Besides its aim to furnish a literary education, it insists that its students shall pursue an industrial course of study.

The Congregational Church has interested itself in a like work, and has established near Lake City the "Florida Normal and Industrial College." This school was opened in 1886, and a colored man placed at its head.

TEACHERS' INSTITUTES.

The training of teachers is now recognized as one of the most important educational agencies in the State. Since the organization in 1879 of the first teachers' institute they have rapidly grown in favor, and their beneficent effects are seen in a greatly improved corps of teachers, whose laudable ambition is "to excel in everything that tends to make a real teacher." Generous appropriations have been made by the Legislatures to defray the expenses incident to holding the institutes, and the State Superintendent has, since 1880, visited annually many of the counties and personally organized and conducted them. In February, 1886, a State Teachers' Institute was held and a State association organized. At the Florida Chautauqua, held each year since 1885 at De Funiak Springs, much profitable instruction has been given to a large body of the teachers of the State. The subjects have related to the most important methods of teaching, and the lecturers have been some of the most eminent men who to-day adorn the teachers' profession.

In June, 1887, the State Superintendent organized a corps of five instructors, who for a period of sixteen weeks successfully conducted teachers' institutes in thirteen counties. At the head of these instructors was Prof. H. N. Felkel, and in his report to the Superintendent he states that their work "has resulted in giving a new impetus to educational thought in our State;" that the citizens generally are disposed to foster it, and that "the trustees and patrons by attending these institutes will better understand what a teacher's qualifications should be, and in this way it will come that only true merit will be recognized."

* * * These teachers receive in the institutes suggestions on the most approved methods of instruction, and are thus enabled to incorporate them in their work. In the second place, by this means, a uniformity in school-room work is secured throughout the State, a fact which can but result in benefit. And lastly, but most important perhaps, these meetings attract attention to the schools and thereby stimulate that interest in education which is so much to be desired, and which could not be accomplished so well in any other way."

NORMAL SCHOOLS.

In taking the initiatory steps for the training of teachers Florida was greatly assisted by the Peabody Fund. In 1877, through aid from this fund, provision was made for three scholarships in the normal department of the Nashville University. Two years later five scholarships were added, and in 1880 the number was increased to ten, each scholarship drawing an annual income of \$200. These were for the benefit of white students. In addition aid was offered to schools that would maintain a normal department. In the course of ten years \$52,650 were donated by the agent of the Peabody Fund to schools in Florida, a large portion of which was definitely set apart for the training of teachers.¹ All schools receiving this aid were required to have an enrolment of a hundred pupils, with a teacher for every fifty. The average attendance must be not less than eighty per cent. of the whole number enrolled, and the school year must continue through ten months.

The first normal class for whites appears to have been formed in the East Florida Seminary at the close of 1879 or beginning of 1880. In the latter year the seminary was organized as a State normal school. It offered free tuition to one student from each legislative district. In 1881-82 forty students were enrolled in the normal course. In 1883-84 there were normal departments in both the East and West Florida Seminaries, besides the normal schools for colored teachers at Tallahassee and Gainesville.

A very flourishing Normal School and Business Institute has been established at White Springs, in Hamilton County, of which Professor J. L. Skipworth is president. This is an incorporated institution (act of June, 1887), and it has already an attendance of one hundred and fifty pupils.

Normal classes are now conducted in a large number of the colleges and secondary schools, and instruction is given in the most improved methods by experienced teachers. At the session of the Legislature in 1887 provision was made for the organization of two normal colleges—one for each race. In October of the same year these colleges were opened and put in operation, the one for white students at De Funiak, in Walton County, and the one for colored students at Tallahassee. The president of the former, Prof. H. N. Felkel, writes that "the initial term began October 5, 1887, with an attendance of sixteen students. There were accessions from time to time until, at the end of the fifth month, there were fifty-seven matriculates. * * * There are

¹ In 1884 the sum of \$1,500 was given from this fund on the condition that it should be expended upon teachers' institutes and public schools. But at the meeting of the trustees of the fund in 1885 the usual donation to Florida was denied "upon the alleged ground that the State refused to pay either principal or interest on certain funds held by the trustees, said to be bonds of the State of Florida."

A full statement of the position taken by the State is given in the report of Hon. Henry R. Jackson to the Trustees of the Peabody Fund, a copy of which appeared in the "Annual Trade Number, 1886," of the Jacksonville Times-Union.

at present three instructors—a president and two assistants.” A year later it is reported to have seventy-five students and to be doing most excellent work.

The president of the colored normal, Prof. T. De S. Tucker, gives the following history of the college: “Up to the assembling of the convention of 1885, which framed the present organic law of the State, there was a growing conviction in the public mind that the colored people of the State should be given the advantages of an education higher than that furnished in the common schools. This found expression in an article in the Constitution providing for the establishment of a normal school for the race. * * * The benefits of the institution are open to persons of both sexes ranging from sixteen years and upwards. The first session began on the 3d of October last with an attendance of fifteen scholars, who had successfully passed the examination requisite to admission. There are now (February, 1888) enrolled thirty-nine,¹ with an average daily attendance of thirty. About half as many as the enrolled number have been rejected, owing to failure to pass the examination. In every respect the school promises splendid results. The race for whom it is established not only prize it, but have already learned to esteem it as a potent factor to their elevation. The scholars are delighted with the facilities for higher training which they enjoy, and are making very commendable progress in their studies. As yet we have representatives from only six counties, but the indications are that by next session we shall have students from nearly every section of the State.”

The Superintendent in his report speaks very highly of the heads of these colleges, and says of the latter that he understands fully “the needs of his race.”

The course “consists of two years in the art of teaching and imparting instruction.” Diplomas are granted to the graduates, who are thus made licentiates of instruction. “These diplomas constitute life certificates of the first class in the State of Florida. An academic, or preparatory course, which is the same in both institutions, is also given, so that students who have not been well prepared in their academic work may be thoroughly prepared to enter upon the college course.”

The studies in the colored normal college, though equivalent, differ in some respects from those pursued in the normal at De Funiak. Besides being qualified educationally to enter upon school work, the graduates from both colleges will be well versed in improved methods of teaching, in hygiene, in ventilating, lighting, and beautifying the school-room, and in “making it a place to win the esteem and affection of the pupil and command the respect of the patrons.”

Both of these schools have been supplied with modern furniture, “with globes, atlases, blackboards, and all other requirements for first-class work. A new building has been erected for the use of the colored normal, a simple Grecian temple, cruciform in shape, having three distinct

¹ The number was increased to fifty-two before the close of the academic year.

departments for study and recitation. A college building was furnished the white school at De Funiak."

ACADEMIES AND HIGH SCHOOLS.

At the close of the War, or soon thereafter, most of the old academies, which were formerly managed by boards of five to nine trustees, ceased to exist. Subsequently some of them were revived and conducted as free schools, though not always with success. Jefferson Academy, at Monticello, which survived the War, adopted the free school system and so continued for ten years (being aided by the Peabody Fund), but in 1877 it reverted to the old system of tuition fees.

In 1875 there were reported to be twelve high schools, aside from the East and West Florida Seminaries. Their curriculum embraced "Greek, Latin, chemistry, natural philosophy, astronomy, physiology, botany, and the higher branches of arithmetic." In the annual report for 1878 the number of high schools is placed at fifteen. It is doubtful if more than one or two of these compared favorably with schools of like name in the older States. Exception should be made in the case of the high school at Jacksonville. This was established in 1877, and has now an enrolment of about one hundred pupils. It has two courses of study, an English and a classical, each extending through four years, and in the quality of instruction, and in the advanced studies pursued, it is scarcely inferior to the colleges of the State. Still, it does not affect a college course. The most advanced branches taught are, in mathematics, trigonometry; in Latin, Virgil's *Æneid* and Cicero's Orations; in Greek, Xenophon's *Anabasis* and Homer's *Iliad*. It has a course of one year in history and of two years in French. To all who complete either course of study and obtain an average of excellence equal to 75 per cent. diplomas are awarded. Two honors are also assigned, and two medals awarded each year for excellence in scholarship and deportment. Free tuition is given to all pupils resident in the county; others are admitted by the payment of forty dollars annually.

PUBLIC SCHOOL LANDS.

In the famous Ordinance of 1787, setting apart "Section 16 of every township" for the maintenance of public schools, there is this memorable declaration: "*Religion, morality, and knowledge being necessary to good government and the happiness of mankind, schools and the means of education shall be forever encouraged.*" By this ordinance there was also set apart not more than two complete townships of land in each State, to be given perpetually for the purposes of a university.

Besides the sixteenth-section lands which Florida received, Congress enacted in 1823 "that an entire township in each of the districts of east and west Florida shall be reserved from sale for the use of a seminary of learning, to be located by the Secretary of the Treasury." Again, in 1845, when Florida became a State, Congress voted "two entire town-

ships of land in addition to the two townships already reserved," in consideration "of the concessions made by the State of Florida in respect to the public lands." By act of Congress, in 1841, five hundred thousand acres of the public lands were added to her school fund. In 1862 Congress appropriated to the several States thirty thousand acres of the public lands for each Senator and Representative in Congress, for the purpose of establishing a fund for the endowment of agricultural colleges.

In the Constitution of Florida adopted in 1865, we find under "Education" the following:

"SEC. 1. The proceeds of all lands for the use of schools and a seminary or seminaries of learning shall be and remain a perpetual fund, the interest of which, together with all moneys accrued from any other source applicable to the same object, shall be irrecoverably appropriated to the use of schools and seminaries of learning, respectively, and to no other purpose.

"SEC. 2. The General Assembly shall take such measures as may be necessary to preserve from waste or damage all lands so granted or appropriated for the purpose of education."

Altogether there have been donated out of the public domain in Florida, for the benefit of common schools, 908,503 acres; for the endowment of a State college or university, 92,160 acres; and for the endowment of two seminaries, 85,714 acres.

HISTORY OF THE SEMINARIES AND COLLEGES.

"The men who laid the foundations of our institutions were not guilty of the absurdity of supposing that any system of elementary education, however excellent, could long thrive, unless there were vitally joined with it, as part of the same system, provisions for a broad and generous higher education."¹

The first step taken by Florida towards the establishment of schools for higher education is found in the act of the Legislature January 24, 1851, in which it is provided that "Two seminaries of learning shall be established, one upon the east, the other upon the west side of the Suwannee River, the first purpose of which shall be the instruction of persons, both male and female, in the art of teaching all the various branches that pertain to a good common school education; and next, to give instruction in the mechanic arts, in husbandry, and agricultural chemistry, in the fundamental laws, and in what regards the rights and duties of citizenship." "Lectures on chemistry, comparative anatomy, astronomy, and the mechanic arts, agricultural chemistry, and on any other science or any branch of literature that the board of education may direct, may be delivered to those attending the seminary in such manner, at such time, and on such conditions as the board of education may prescribe."

¹ From the American Educational Annual, Vol. I, 1-75.

This act was followed by others in 1853, 1857, 1861, 1862, and 1866—all having reference to provisions for these schools which were established, the one at Tallahassee, the other at Ocala,¹ and which continued up to the formation of the State Constitution of 1868, and practically for a decade following, the only public educational institutions of higher grade than common schools. In 1862 the Governor was authorized to create a board of education consisting of six persons besides the county superintendent of schools, who was to be secretary and member *ex officio*. This law has since been modified and now reads substantially as follows: There shall be appointed by the Governor, by and with the consent of the Senate, seven persons, not more than three of whom shall be residents of the town or county in which the seminary is located, for each of the two seminaries of learning as members of a board of education, who shall hold their office for four years, and the members of said board of education shall annually elect one of their number as secretary, and one as president. The treasurers of the counties in which the seminaries are situated shall be, respectively, by virtue of their office, treasurers of the board, and each shall give such security for the faithful performance of his duty as the board for which he is treasurer may require of him.

Among the powers intrusted to this board were the following: The appointment of principal and assistants; the establishment of an experimental school in connection with the seminary; the purchasing of grounds and the erection of suitable buildings, and furnishing them with apparatus, books, and all necessary appliances, and the providing instruments of husbandry and mechanical tools. They were to establish rules and regulations for the admission of pupils; appoint annually a board of visitors, who were to report to the State superintendent; provide courses of lectures upon chemistry, comparative anatomy, etc., and upon any science or branch of literature that they might think best adapted to advance the interests of the seminary. The control of all funds belonging to the seminary was placed in their hands, and no money was to be drawn from the treasury except "upon the warrant of the comptroller, issued in pursuance of a certificate of the board of education, signed by their secretary and countersigned by their president." Other and enlarged powers were conferred upon this board, making it a body corporate and empowered to "purchase, have, hold, possess, and enjoy" goods, chattels, and effects of every kind, and grant, alien, sell, invest, and dispose of the same; "provided the same be not repugnant to the Constitution and laws of this State or of the United States." In brief, to this board was intrusted the supervision of the entire interests of the seminary.

It is made the duty of the county commissioners of each county to select the candidates for admission to the seminaries. The number of these is in proportion to its representatives in the State Assembly, each county being "entitled to as many free students as it has members in

¹ See below.

the lower house of the Legislature." Other pupils are admitted at a reasonable rate of tuition.¹ The State Superintendent is required to visit each seminary at least once a year, and embody in his annual report to the Governor a statement of its condition, its "prospects, progress, and usefulness," in order that this may be laid before the Legislature at each regular session thereof.

EAST FLORIDA SEMINARY.

In 1848 the Governor of Florida requested the citizens within each county east of the Suwannee River to say how much in lands, buildings, or funds they would give to secure the location of the seminary within their bounds. In reply, the citizens of Marion County agreed to give sixteen lots, located in the city of Ocala, with a building erected thereon, and \$1,600 in money. Accordingly, by act of 1852 Ocala was selected, and the seminary was opened in the following year. Here it remained until 1866, when by act of Legislature it was removed to Gainesville.² The object designed by this removal seems hardly to have been attained, for the fact still remained that the income of the seminary fund was expended in maintaining a *local* high school, the counties within the legal territory of the seminary very rarely taking advantage of the privilege accorded to them of sending pupils free of charge for tuition.

Superintendent Edwin P. Cater, A. M., who has for many years been the efficient head of the seminary, makes the following contribution to its history :

"During the period of Florida's territorial organization the General Government donated two townships of land for the purpose of establishing a seminary of learning, and, when the Territory became a State, two other townships were added to the original donation. * * * About three-fifths of these lands have been sold and the proceeds (\$91,000) invested in State bonds, the interest of these bonds constituting the present income of the two seminaries. * * * Up to the year 1877 the seminary was little more than a public school for Gainesville. At that time certain improvements were inaugurated, the school was thoroughly graded, and the foundation laid for steady progress in all respects. The age of the students ranged from four to twenty-four years, and the range of studies was correspondingly great. Since then the policy has been to gradually drop the lower classes and in the same

¹ See below in regard to tuition in the West Florida Seminary.

² The Constitutional convention of 1885 decreed that Ocala should be reimbursed for the damage to her interests occasioned by the removal of the seminary, and the Legislature of 1887, in order to settle and pay this claim, made an appropriation of \$5,400, and directed that it should be used "for the erection of public school buildings and the purchase of apparatus necessary for carrying on graded schools." One thousand six hundred dollars of this appropriation was voted by the town of Ocala to assist in defraying the expense of a building for the colored school, now known as the Howard Academy. The balance is invested, and is to be used in maintaining a high school for white pupils.

proportion raise the age limit, so that at present no students are received under thirteen years of age. The number of classes is now limited to four, and the course of study embraces the following branches, viz: In mathematics, arithmetic, commercial arithmetic, algebra, book-keeping, and plane geometry; in science, descriptive geography, history of the United States, physiology, physical geography, elementary physics, and elementary chemistry; in English, spelling, reading, grammar, elocution (including the study of authors), and rhetoric; in ancient languages, a three years' course in Latin and a two years' course in Greek. In writing and drawing there are daily lessons. There are also in the curriculum, as stated in the annual calendar, general history, plane trigonometry and surveying, geology, and botany.

"There are three examinations during the annual session: (1) The entrance examination at the beginning of the session, to determine the classification of candidates for matriculation; (2) the intermediate examination of classes at the close of the first term; (3) the final examination at the close of the session.

"Since 1883 the school has been strictly military in its organization and government, and the military department has been under the charge of an officer of the United States Army, detailed for that purpose by the Secretary of War. At the same time the military duties of the students are not allowed to interfere with their academic work, but all drills, etc., occur in the afternoon at the close of the regular school work. The hours spent at Northern military schools in the heated drill-rooms are here spent in the open air, with all nature's resources supplementing the art of man.

"The seminary has a full equipment of infantry arms and accoutrements; and also two three-inch steel rifled guns for instruction in artillery drill.

"This institution is a *school*, not a *college*. The design of its course of study is to prepare boys and young men for admission into university classes, or for entrance at once upon the active duties of life.

"Of the twenty-eight counties which constitute its legal territory, twenty-one have representatives now in school.

"Up to 1883 the building consisted of a wooden structure badly designed and poorly constructed. There are now two buildings, one a handsome brick edifice, of the most approved style of school architecture, the other of wood, 197 feet long and 92 feet wide, built in the form of a quadrangle, enclosing an open court 150 feet long and 50 feet wide. This latter building is the barracks, or dormitory, and all teachers and non-resident male students are required to live in it.

"The seminary is entitled by law to grant diplomas and to confer degrees. On completion of the English course the English diploma is given, and on completion of the other courses, viz, the commercial, classical, and scientific, appropriate diplomas are given. In 1882, when these diplomas were first granted, there were three graduates; in 1883, five; in 1884, one; in 1885, four; in 1886, seven; in 1887, seven; and in 1888, eleven.



EAST FLORIDA SEMINARY, GAINESVILLE, FLA.

"The seminary has maintained for a number of years a normal department, the State making a special appropriation therefor. In this any white person of sufficient educational attainments and sixteen years of age, by agreeing to make teaching a profession, has been granted free tuition in classes which were independent of the regular seminary course. As the new Constitution of the State provides for separate normal schools this department has been discontinued.

"In consequence of the increased requirements for admission there has been a marked reduction in the number of pupils in attendance at the seminary, but full compensation in the age and advancement of those enrolled. During the past academic year—the 35th since its founding—the average of the actual daily attendance was 75.30, and the whole number enrolled ninety-three. The average age of the seventy-nine male students was seventeen years, and of the fourteen female students sixteen years.

"Notwithstanding the epidemic of 1888, which delayed for two months the opening of the school year of 1888–89, the superintendent reports in March, 1889, that the institution is prospering beyond their expectations; that there is a slight decrease in the number enrolled, but that among the students there are representatives from South Carolina and Texas.

"In the academic building there is a room devoted to the library.¹ This now contains between 800 and 1,000 volumes, all said to be works of solid merit."

The board of instruction and government consists of seven members, who have proved themselves very efficient in their several departments. To the president the prosperity of the seminary is eminently due. Colonel Cater was born in Columbia, S. C., and is a descendant on both ancestral lines from clergymen of the Presbyterian Church. He was graduated from Oglethorpe University, Georgia, in May, 1861, and a month later entered the Confederate army, in which he served until the close of the War. From that time on he has devoted his life to teaching, meeting with uniform success, first as principal for four years of academies in Tennessee, and then for seven years at the head of higher or collegiate institutions in Georgia. In June, 1887, he was called to the principalship of the East Florida Seminary, which position he has since held. Throughout his career as a teacher he has so distinguished himself as to win from the most eminent friends of each institution over which he has presided

¹ There has been and is still a great lack of good public libraries in Florida. In 1850 there were no college libraries, no student libraries, only one public school library with a list of 200 volumes, and two State libraries with an aggregate collection of 4,000 volumes. During the next twenty years a gratifying advance was made, so that in 1872 there were reported to be seventy-five public libraries with 25,374 volumes, and one hundred and seventy-eight private libraries with 87,554 volumes. In Bowker's Library List, published in 1887, the number of volumes in the public libraries is stated to be 26,660; but this publication eliminates minor libraries of under a thousand volumes.

the highest encomiums respecting his character, scholarship, and ability as a manager and disciplinarian. His most important work has been done in connection with the East Florida Seminary. He found it merely an ungraded public school without reputation, and miserably housed. It has now commodious and suitable buildings, and is patronized by the entire State; and, as the record shows, is doing excellent educational work.

WEST FLORIDA SEMINARY.¹

On November 24, 1856, it was resolved by the board of trustees of the Florida Institute (owned by the city of Tallahassee) that the intendant address a letter to the President of the Senate and Speaker of the House of Representatives of the State of Florida, offering to the said Legislature on and in behalf of the city of Tallahassee \$10,000 as an inducement for the location of the State seminary in said city, the seminary edifice (then in use of the Florida Institute) with its appliances to be given at an appraised value, and the rest to be paid in money. The city also agreed to pay \$2,000 annually for the tuition of the children of Tallahassee.

The tender was made and accepted, and on the 27th of March, 1857, the property and school, known as the Florida Institute, was turned over to the board of education chosen for "the Seminary West of the Suwannee River." On December 23, 1857, this board authorized the purchase of the lots adjoining the seminary property. The property above enumerated embraces about nineteen acres, on which there is a two-story brick building, the whole being worth about \$10,000.

Up to June 14, 1858, only males had received instruction. On that day it was resolved, "That the Board provide for the instruction of females from and after the 1st day of October next." August 28, 1858, the board accepted a deed of conveyance from the president of Leon Female Academy of two lots in the north addition of the city of Tallahassee, and the seminary has ever since maintained a female department. This department was conducted in the building just referred to, separately from the male department, until October, 1882, when the two were merged. From that date to the present time the males and females have been taught in the same building and classes. This "Seminary West of the Suwannee River" (popularly known as the West Florida Seminary) has been in operation from February, 1857, except that the male department was suspended about one year during 1862-63. Supported by the interest from the seminary fund and a fund given by the city of Tallahassee, as also by tuition fees until 1869, it was able to offer good facilities for instruction, and did in fact for many years sustain an excellent local reputation. For some time after the War aid was given to it from the Peabody Fund, and occasionally, as

¹ Much of this sketch of the West Florida Seminary is collated from a paper furnished me by its president, Col. George M. Edgar, LL. D.

"In Latin the following authors, or their equivalents, are read: Cæsar, Sallust, Cicero's orations against Catiline, Cicero de Amicitia, Virgil, Livy, Tacitus, Horace, and Juvenal.

"In Greek, Xenophon's *Anabasis*, Lysias (three orations), Homer's *Iliad*, Demosthenes, Plato's *Crito* and *Apology*, and Sophocles.

"In both Latin and Greek the grammar and idioms are carefully studied, frequent exercises are required in rendering English into Latin and Greek, and due prominence is given to the study of the Latin and Greek metres.

"In teaching French and German the 'natural method' is combined with the grammatical. Both oral and written translations are required, and frequent exercises given in translating English into these languages. The more difficult principles of the grammar are discussed only with advanced students.

"The course in mathematics embraces algebra, geometry, plane and spherical trigonometry, surveying, mensuration, analytical geometry. Calculus will be substituted for other studies in the curriculum for those desiring it.

"The aim in the department of English is to make the study of the language of disciplinary value; to promote correct, clear, and elegant expression; to teach the science of discourse and correct principles of criticism; and to lead the student to a just appreciation of the richness of our literature.

"With this view, the drilling in grammar and analysis in the high school course is followed by the study of rhetoric, both as an art and science, of the masterpieces of English literature, its history and growth; the whole being interspersed by frequent practical exercises requiring original investigation, comparison, and thought.

"In history and political science the purpose is to study the moral, social, and political forces which have operated in the development of national life, and to apply the lessons thus learned to the solution of the social problems of our time. Appropriate text-books in history, government, and economic science form the basis of instruction, which must necessarily be amplified by lectures and reference to the larger works on these subjects and to standard reviews and other periodicals.

"The department of philosophy embraces psychology, ethics, logic, and the history of philosophy. In the study of the mind, no theory or doctrine is urged for acceptance which is not based upon a philosophical induction from the facts of consciousness. The freest and fullest discussion of opposing views is encouraged."

In natural science the aim is to give a good summary of the facts and principles of the leading sciences. The sciences of observation, such as physiology, zoölogy, and botany, are taught chiefly in the high school course, both because they are easily acquired by young students and to gain more time for the study of the more difficult sciences—physics, chemistry, astronomy, and geology—in the collegiate course.

In addition to these courses, drawing has recently been introduced as one of the regular studies of each class.

An examination is held at the close of each term. All examinations are chiefly in writing, though oral illustrations and manipulations may be called for by the examiner to satisfy himself that a student understands his answers, and has a practical knowledge of the subject. For the present, the time required to take a degree will depend upon the stage of advancement, aptitude, and diligence of the student.

Besides the degrees of bachelor of arts and bachelor of letters to be conferred upon the students who complete the two regular courses, certificates of proficiency will be conferred upon those who satisfactorily complete any one of the departments or schools.

The following prizes are offered for the ensuing session: A gold medal to cost not less than \$10 is offered to the student who shall attain to the highest grade in scholarship and deportment combined. A gold medal of equal value to the above is offered by the board of education to the student of each of the regular classes who shall attain to the highest average in his class after examination.

Candidates for admission into the seminary must be well grounded in the branches usually embraced in the highest grade of the common schools. Allowances will be made for the differences in the standard of these schools, but it is the desire of the board of education to confine the teaching in the seminary, as far as possible, to high school and collegiate studies.

The school year begins on the first Monday in October, and continues thirty-six weeks, being divided into two terms.

THE STATE AGRICULTURAL COLLEGE.

By act passed July 2, 1862, Congress appropriated to the several States "land scrip to the amount of 30,000 acres of the public lands for each Senator and Representative in Congress, on condition that within five years¹ each State or Territory claiming the benefit of the act proceed to the establishment of a college. The intent was that the lands thus donated should be sold and the proceeds invested in such a way as to form a permanent endowment. The object of the colleges to be established is thus set forth: "To teach such branches of learning as are related to agriculture and the mechanic arts, without excluding other scientific and classical studies, and including military tactics, in such way as the Legislatures of the States may respectively prescribe, in order to promote the liberal and practical education of the industrial classes in the several pursuits and professions in life."

Rarely has Congress legislated more wisely. For twenty years this act has been of incalculable benefit to the youth of the nation. The schools established under it have been the "colleges of the people,"

¹ This condition appears to have been modified.

since they are the natural outgrowth and completion of the free common school system of the country.

In 1870 the Legislature of Florida voted to establish an agricultural college under the provisions of this act. It provided for a board of trustees who should be authorized to claim and receive from the Secretary of the Interior the "land scrip" voted by Congress, and to "sell and assign this scrip, or locate and thereafter transfer and convey the lands," and use ten per cent. of the proceeds from the sales for the purchase of a site for an experimental farm. The balance of the proceeds was to form a permanent fund, and the trustees were directed to invest it "in the stocks of the United States, or of some of the States of the Union, bearing an annual interest of not less than six per cent. on the par value." The interest was to be applied to the purposes set forth in the statement of the design of the college. Neither principal nor interest could be devoted to the purchase, erection, or repairs of any building, nor for any other purpose than that expressed in the design of establishment. The college was to be located as near the centre of the State as possible, and the trustees were required to secure by gift or purchase a tract of land of not less than 100 acres, "to be used as an experimental farm, or for the location of workshops, or otherwise to promote the objects of the institution."

The president, professors, and superintendents of the college were to be chosen by the board of trustees, and they, with the secretary of the board, were to constitute the faculty of the college. Each county was to have the right to send as many students to the college, who were to have free tuition, as it had representatives in the General Assembly; and these were to be selected by the county board of public instruction "from among the most advanced pupils in the common and high schools who shall present themselves as candidates." The pupils selected must be "those best qualified as to scholastic attainments, good health, and upright moral character." Before admission to college they were, however, to be re-examined and approved by the faculty. In case the county board failed to make selections, as the law required, pupils holding high rank in the schools of the county could apply in person to the faculty for examination and admission.

It was made the duty of the board of trustees to report annually to the Superintendent of Public Instruction, and this officer was required to transmit said report to all other colleges endowed by said act of Congress creating agricultural college lands. A copy also was required to be sent to the Secretary of the Interior, and one to each House of Congress. It was further provided that "the Legislature may add other departments of learning to this college when the endowments of such departments shall have been provided for;" and also that "the Justices of the Supreme Court shall constitute an examining committee with power to investigate the affairs of the college and the corporation, and to appoint proxies to act in their stead."

In 1872, the Legislature made it the duty of each State Senator during his term of office to nominate and send one student from his senatorial district to the college, who should be entitled to receive the benefits of a full course of instruction without cost for tuition.

The next year a site was chosen in Alachua County, a course of collegiate studies agreed upon, and steps were taken towards the organization of a corps of instructors. The friends of education in Florida were not, however, to see these plans consummated. We find in the annual report of 1874 that "the State Agricultural College was still in abeyance; its funds locked up in State securities about which there was litigation." The fund of the college then amounted to \$80,000, with which the trustees had bought \$100,000 worth of State bonds. In May, 1875, another location for the college was chosen. This was at Eau Gallie, at a point on the Indian River in south-eastern Florida. The next year a college building was erected, but before it reached completion it was felt that the location was ill-chosen. The building was never opened for students, and the project of establishing the college here was soon after abandoned.

The act establishing the Agricultural College was, in March, 1877, amended, and by this amendment a new board of trustees with corporate powers was created. The board as reconstituted was to consist of nine members, of which the Superintendent of Public Instruction and the State Treasurer were to be president and treasurer. Besides these the board was to elect a vice-president and secretary and an executive committee of five members. This committee was to act in behalf and under directions of the board between the regular meetings of the same, and determine all matters relating to officers and committees, and make all needful rules and regulations for the management of its affairs.

The trustees were made competent to fill vacancies in their board, "subject to the approval of the Judges of the Supreme Court." In other respects the college was to be governed according to the act of 1870.

With the creation of the new board authority was given to remove the college from Eau Gallie to any point that in their judgment would be for the best interests of the State of Florida: *Provided*, That the location selected should be easily accessible and as near the centre of the State as practicable. The transfer of the college property to the new trustees was made in July, 1878, and in the November following they resolved to effect the removal to some central and attractive location, where the largest available fund for buildings and lands could be secured, "so soon as suitable buildings are in readiness to receive the teachers and pupils." But the time had not yet come for the establishment of the college. So slight was the interest taken in it that for four years nothing of importance was done. In 1881 it was even proposed to appropriate the fund, then amounting to \$120,000, to common school purposes, or to the endowment of a normal seminary with an agricultural department.

The place finally chosen, and upon which the college has been built, was Lake City, the county seat of Columbia County and fifty-nine miles west of Jacksonville. This site was selected principally because "of its well-known healthfulness and accessibility," as well as for the beauty of its environs and the equability of its climate. One hundred and twelve acres of land, "suitable for agricultural, horticultural, and ornamental purposes," were secured within and near the limits of Lake City, nearly all of which was the gift of the citizens. In addition there was contributed from the same source \$15,000 towards the erection of the college buildings. During the year 1883-84 an attractive building was completed, the faculty chosen, and a curriculum of study provided. There have since been built upon the college grounds a dormitory for the students and residences for the president and professors, out of funds appropriated by the Legislature.

In the first catalogue, published in June, 1886, the object of the college is set forth as follows:

"The trustees * * * have founded a school in which liberal culture and practical education shall proceed together—a school in which the arts and sciences shall be thoroughly taught and diligently studied in their theoretical as well as in their applied forms. Florida has not heretofore had within her borders a college in which to educate her youth, and has intrusted to distant States a work which it is her own duty to perform."

The school year opens the first Monday in October, and is divided into semesters of eighteen weeks each. Candidates for admission into the Freshman class must be fifteen years of age, furnish satisfactory testimonials of good character, and pass an examination in all the third year studies of the sub-collegiate course. The design is to furnish a curriculum which will lead to three appropriate degrees, viz: a classical course and a literary course, leading to the degree of bachelor of arts; a general course in science, a course in engineering, and a course in agriculture, leading to the degree of bachelor of science; and a philosophical course, or course in letters and political science, leading to the degree of bachelor of philosophy. Students in the literary course are allowed to substitute proficiency in French or German for the Greek of the classical course. The trustees, believing "that elementary work in the physical sciences and in the modern languages is delayed too long, offer instruction in these departments of knowledge early in the student's career, and for this purpose have made temporary provision for thorough preparatory discipline in the sub-collegiate classes.¹ These will be discontinued as soon as private enterprise or the increased efficiency of the public school system shall furnish the preparation demanded for entrance upon collegiate work."

¹ It might be justly questioned whether the present retention of the sub-collegiate department is not a mistake, as the college thus becomes a rival of another State institution, viz, the East Florida Seminary.

The methods of instruction are those approved by the highest institutions of learning, and only proficiency, as attested by rigorous examinations, entitles a student to the honor of a degree. In the department of agriculture and horticulture instruction is imparted "by means of lectures, explanations in the field, and the use of text-books when available for the purpose." In addition to witnessing the operations in farm, garden, and orchard, each student receives a training in the use of tools and implements used in wood, metal, and stone. At the present time this is one of the most popular departments of the college. All regular students, unless excused, are required to take this course. For others who can remain only a year a shorter course is provided. This is designed specially for farmers, gardeners, and fruit-growers, and for those desiring to qualify themselves *practically* for such pursuits as a permanent business. There is also a printing office, fully equipped with two good presses, a large cutting machine, and a full line of plain and ornamental type, so that any pupil may become a practical printer in a short time without expense.

Under the requirements of Congress military tactics are to be thoroughly taught, giving to each student the advantage of a discipline peculiar to a military organization. This is now a marked feature of the school.

The college has a new library and well-furnished reading room, and, though lacking a complete reference library and some scientific instruments, it is otherwise supplied with all the necessary equipments. It has a fine mineral and geological museum, a well-equipped laboratory, a fine collection of natural history, and is collecting an exhibit of the State geology, woods, birds, and animals.

Within the year past the college grounds have been greatly beautified by the cultivation of grasses, shrubs, and flowers, and a general arrangement of walks and avenues. A model barn and a cottage home for farm hands have been built, and the farm has been inclosed by a neat and substantial fence. Here some valuable work has been done in connection with the experimental station. Under the eye of the instructor, every vegetable product which it is supposed will thrive in this soil and climate, or which it is desirable, if possible, to raise, is thoroughly tested, and frequent bulletins are sent out announcing the results of these experiments.

Numerous improvements have been made since the close of the last collegiate year. Besides a building for a manual training school, a new chemical laboratory has recently been erected. This is the finest building of the kind in the State, and said to be equal to any in the South. The laboratory will be furnished with every convenience in the way of apparatus necessary to do first-class work. It will afford the means of giving thorough courses in theoretical and practical chemistry, and, in connection with it, there will be a private laboratory fitted up with

the special view of executing every kind of analysis and investigation known to the science of chemistry.

The faculty of the State Agricultural College for the year 1888-89 is as follows :

F. L. Kern,¹ A. M., President.

Col. A. Q. Holladay (of the Universities of Virginia and Berlin), Professor of History, English Literature, and Latin.

Capt. L. H. Orleman, U. S. Army (of the Royal Military College, Darmstadt, Germany), Professor of Mathematics and Commandant of Cadets.

J. N. Whitner, A. M. (of the University of Georgia), Professor of Agriculture, Horticulture, and Greek.

J. M. Pickel, A. M. (Furman University, S. C.), Ph. D. (Göttingen, Germany), Professor of Chemistry and Chemist to the Experiment Station.

J. J. Earle, Assistant in Chemistry, chosen by the Professor of Chemistry.

George Chatterton, Jr., Professor of Manual Training, Draughting, and Designing.

James P. De Pass, Professor of Pomology, and Director of the Experiment Station.

J. C. Neal, Professor of Entomology and Veterinary Pathology.

H. P. Baya, Assistant Tutor.

These are energetic and able men, who are serving with great fidelity the interests of the college and State. Of them and their work the Superintendent of Instruction says: "Graduates of the universities and colleges of this country and of Europe, they bring with them great learning and experience, and are devoted to their profession, and especially to the building up and perfection of this Florida institution of learning."

For its support the college is mostly dependent upon the endowment fund created by the sales of land donated by the National Government. This fund amounts now to \$155,800, and there is derived from it an annual income of \$9,000.

It is doubtless true that in some departments of the college the course of instruction is not yet as complete as the management designed it, or as they trust that it will be in the near future. Still, "the foundations have been well laid; the task—the thankless task—of getting the college

¹ In the autumn of 1888 Prof. F. L. Kern, who had had a long and successful experience as president of normal and scientific schools in Iowa, Illinois, and Michigan, was chosen president of the State Agricultural College at Lake City. His predecessor was Alexander Q. Holladay, who still retains his connection with the college. It is yet too soon to speak of work accomplished by the new president, but this may be said, that it is now believed by the friends of the institution that the crisis in its history is safely passed. President Kern is also editor and publisher of the Florida School Journal.

before the public in its true character is being patiently and persistently, without let or hinderance, performed."

Though only forty-two¹ students were in attendance for the year 1887—a number which the youth of the State ought to increase tenfold, there is abundant evidence that the institution is gaining in public esteem in proportion as the advantages it offers are better understood.

FLORIDA UNIVERSITY.

The Constitution of the State of Florida (1868), Article VIII, section 2, reads as follows: "The Legislature shall provide a uniform system of common schools and a university, and shall provide for the liberal maintenance of the same." In conformity with this provision of the Constitution, the Florida University was organized in February, 1883, under a liberal charter, with two colleges—the literary and the medical. The former was the West Florida Seminary, which retained its separate charter and special organization as to trustees and endowments. The other was the Tallahassee College of Medicine and Surgery. In addition to these the university charter recognized a college of law, a theological institute, and a polytechnic and normal institute.

Instead of forming the students into college classes, it was proposed to divide the university into "schools of instruction." For instance, there were to be in the literary college the school of ancient languages and metaphysics, the school of mathematics, the school of natural science, the school of English branches and history, and the school of civil engineering. The polytechnic institute was to include, besides civil engineering, also natural science, mining and metallurgy, mechanics and building, photography, painting, music, telephoning, printing, and allied branches. To these were to be added a commercial course and a normal training school.

Upon completing the course prescribed for any "school," and passing a satisfactory examination, a "certificate of proficiency" was to be given, signed by the faculty and the board of education. When such certificates had been given by four or more of the "schools," the student receiving them was to be entitled to the diploma of the University, and the degree of bachelor of arts, of science, or of engineering was to be conferred, according to the studies which had been pursued.

Such was the Florida University as conceived by its founders—an institution that owed its origin to, and was to be conducted by, private enterprise. The catalogue published in 1884-85 shows a corps of twenty-one members in the different faculties, eight of whom belonged to the Literary College, and included men eminent in scholarship and of excellent repute as instructors. The students for the year 1883-84 numbered seventy-eight. These were mostly enrolled in the Literary College. The Medical College (since located at Jacksonville and successfully conducted) had but eight students, and of these only two re-

¹At the present time (March, 1883), the number is seventy-one.

sided in the State. No catalogue of the University has been published since the one referred to above. In the calendars of the State Agricultural College for 1886 and 1887 there is this announcement: "It is in contemplation to unite this college with the University of Florida, and pending the desired legislation to that end arrangements have been made for allied work with the chartered University."

The Rev. John Kost, M. D., LL. D., in whose brain this scheme for a university in Florida seems to have originated, was chosen chancellor.

Dr. Kost, though a man of varied scholastic attainments and eminent in some departments of study, has proved himself unequal to the task of gaining the confidence of the public. Almost from the outset, therefore, the University had no existence except in name.

COLLEGES UNDER THE CONTROL OF RELIGIOUS DENOMINATIONS.

ROLLINS COLLEGE.

The denominational colleges of Florida are of very recent establishment. Though they have assumed the name of colleges, many of them have as yet attempted nothing higher than secondary education. A few are already doing college work, and among these none ranks higher than Rollins College at Winter Park. In fact, according to an old resident of the State who holds an important educational position, no institution in Florida has a finer corps of instructors. This college was incorporated under the Florida statutes, April 28, 1885. Its location was well chosen on a high and beautiful plateau. The object of its establishment was to furnish a Christian education of the highest standard. It claims to be non-sectarian, though it was founded by the General Congregational Association of Florida. The lofty spirit in which the work was undertaken is set forth in this declaration: "that it has been a part of the mission of Congregationalism to carry higher learning wherever it has gone;" and, moreover, that, "the way to change public sentiment and lift the masses higher and make the public schools what they ought to be in every city, village, and school district, is to set up somewhere the very highest standard."

The government of the college is vested in a president, vice-president, secretary, treasurer, and auditor, and a board of twenty-one trustees, and it is required of them, as of the faculty of instruction, that they be members of some evangelical church. The college has also an executive committee, consisting of the president of the faculty and of the corporation and three taken from the board of trustees. The college takes its name from Mr. A. W. Rollins, of Chicago, who gave towards its endowment \$50,000. It has received in other gifts \$86,596. The management believe in co-education. They believe, also, in the New England idea of education, with the New England professor to elucidate it.

Rollins College was opened for the matriculation of students November 4, 1885. During the first term there was a faculty of seven instruct-

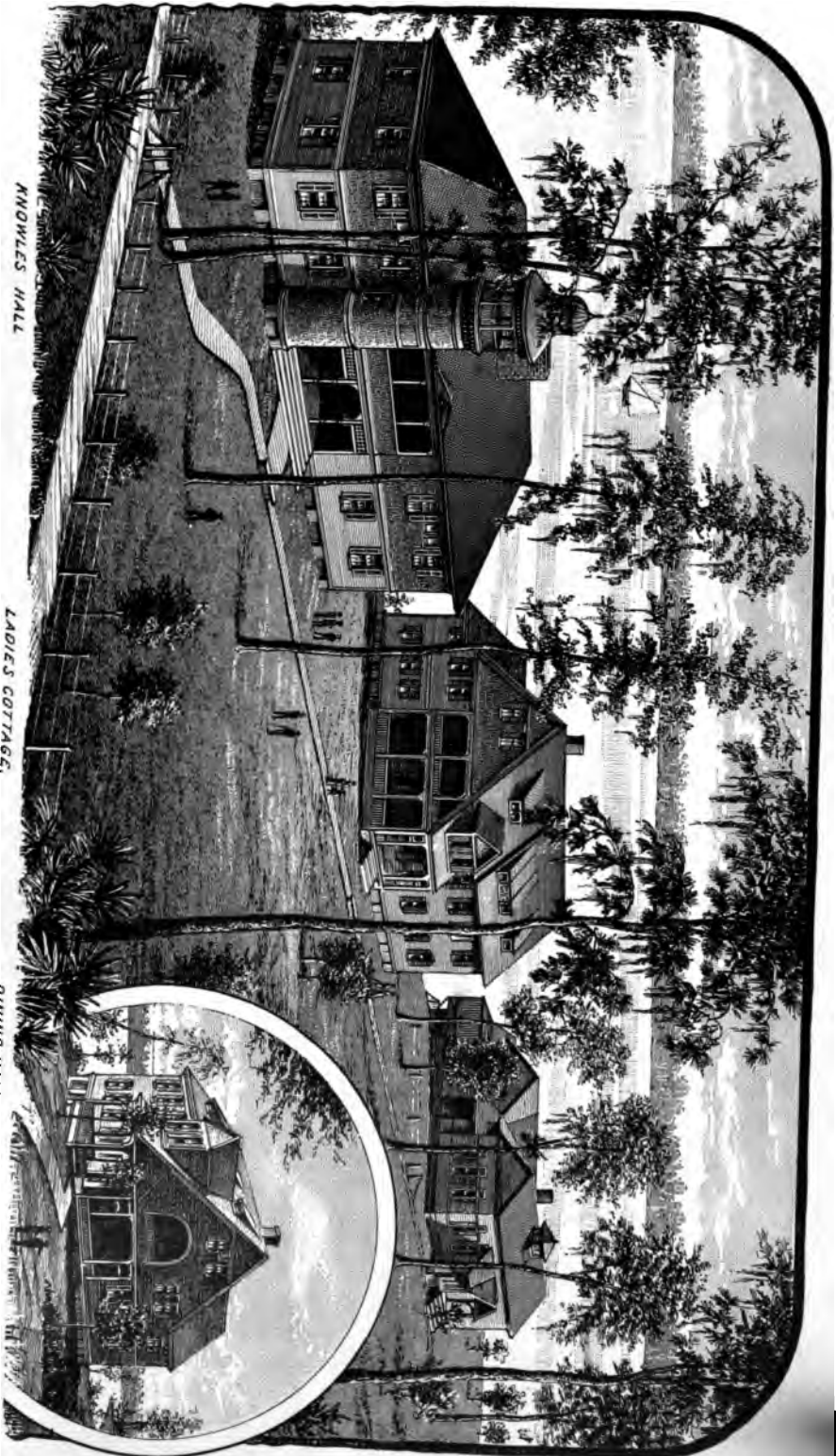


ors, and an enrolment of fifty-three pupils. The original design was to have the college divided into a classical and scientific department; a preparatory department; a training school for teachers; and an industrial training school, open to all to "acquire knowledge and skill in the industrial arts."⁷ This plan was followed until the close of the second academic year, June 3, 1887, when the normal school and the primary grades were abolished. This action was caused principally by reason of the increase of students in the preparatory and academic schools—the number enrolled in these and in the collegiate department having risen to seventy. The grammar school is still retained, with an attendance during the year 1888-89 of fifty-four pupils; no work, however, is done in the industrial training department. In the college a very high standard is set, the curriculum of studies and the requirements for admission following the same lines and being fully equal to those which are common to our best American colleges. It has thus far been most fortunate in the character and *morale* of its students. During the three and one-half years since its founding very commendable progress has been made in its educational facilities; still these have only kept pace with the advance in its material interests. Already its fine campus, bordering one of the beautiful lakes which abound in Florida, is set off by four attractive college buildings. Its board of instruction has increased from seven to ten; the number of preparatory, academic, and college students' has more than doubled; and not alone this, but the whole *esprit de corps* of the school has undergone a pleasing change. More regard is now paid by the students to refinement of manners and to social proprieties, matters which had suffered much neglect in the uncongenial atmosphere of pioneer life.

Though but few have yet entered upon the college course, one of the instructors says of the work done that it "has been quite as much as in classes of the same grade at the North. The Sophomore class has done more and better work than I have been accustomed to see at the North." The president of the college writes: "I have never before seen such good preparatory work done, nor such good work done in college according to the grade." Among the classes he names are those in mental science, logic, physiology, botany, geometry, higher algebra, trigonometry, Cicero's orations, Xenophon's *Memorabilia*, physical geography, physics, chemistry, French, German, music, and elocution—such branches of study as commonly belong rather to collegiate than to sub-collegiate courses. Gymnastics are also taught under an experienced instructor, and it is expected that a gymnasium will soon be built. The school year begins the first of October and closes the last week in May.

The home life of the college is after what is known as the "cottage plan." Separate cottages have been erected for the young ladies and

⁷Now ninety-six according to report made at the annual meeting of the corporation in February, 1889.



KNOWLES HALL

LADIES COTTAGE.

ROLLINS COLLEGE, WINTER PARK, FLA.

DINING HALL.
GENTLEMEN'S COTTAGE.

the young gentlemen, each accommodating about thirty students. The rooms are arranged in suites of two, so that two students can occupy one as a study and the other as a sleeping room with two single beds, or each student can have entire privacy. The rooms are furnished, except that the students provide their own linen. Each cottage is under the care of a matron, who is watchful of the health, happiness, and general welfare of the students, and throws about them the atmosphere of a cultivated, cheerful Christian home.

Since the opening of Rollins College its Northern friends (one of the truest being F. B. Knowles, Esq., of Worcester, Mass.) have shown great generosity in supplying its various needs as they have arisen. In this way the current expenses and the outlay for the erection of buildings have been happily met. Many friends of education in Florida have desired the college to add departments of theology, law, and medicine, but the trustees do not yet feel able to assume the financial burdens that such a step would involve.

Great praise is due to the faculty of Rollins College, graduates in great part from Northern institutions, who have so ably filled the positions to which they were chosen. The president, Rev. E. P. Hooker, D. D., is a man of marked ability, who adds to other qualities essential to the head of a college great energy of character and an enthusiastic devotion to the interests of education in the State. His motto seems to be given in this line which he wrote to us: "We are determined to do only first-class work." Dr. Hooker occupied for many years some of the most important pulpits in Vermont and Massachusetts, and was very successful in his pastorates. A few years ago he went to Florida to seek restoration of health, and was chosen pastor of the Congregational Society at Winter Park. He soon took a leading position in the conventions of the General Congregational Association of Florida and in the ministry of the State, and was one of the efficient promoters of the establishment of Rollins College.

The report of the college for the year 1887-88 is in every way encouraging. The words of its friends are exceedingly laudatory. Judge Walker, of the Superior Court of Indiana, says: "I think the college ranks with the first in the country in good, honest work, and that the qualifications of the instructors are equal to any. The students are under Christian care. It is a place where I leave my only child without any solicitude as to the care that will be bestowed upon her, or the work that will be accomplished." Another (a distinguished clergyman) says: "I believe Rollins College is one of the most precious boons which the North has bestowed upon the South. From its organization Florida will reckon the era of its intellectual and religious regeneration."

Certainly this institution is not one of the least of the blessings which have followed the train of Northern emigration southward. Its future seems full of promise.

DE LAND UNIVERSITY.¹

De Land University was organized under a special charter granted by the Legislature during the session of 1887. It owes its existence primarily to the generosity and foresight of Hon. H. A. De Land, of Fairport, N. Y., whose purpose in founding it was to establish in Florida a Christian school for both sexes inferior to none in the country in character and rank. When, in 1883, Mr. De Land founded the De Land Academy and secured Dr. J. H. Griffith, of Troy, N. Y., to take the management of it, he recognized the fact that there was no college, in the proper sense of the word, in Florida; nor, with one or two exceptions, any high school or academy in which a full preparation for college could be obtained. This need he proposed to supply by establishing an academy equal in rank to the best institutions of the kind at the North, which he confidently believed would develop into a college or university.

The first session was opened on the 8th of November, 1883, in the lecture room of the Baptist church at De Land. There were but thirteen students at the opening, but the attendance increased during each term, so that before the close of the first academic year sixty-five had been enrolled. Meanwhile, through the generosity of Mr. De Land, an extensive plot of land facing the principal street of the city had been donated to the academy and a fine two-story building erected thereon. In this building the session of the second year (that of 1884-85) began with a faculty of five teachers and a registry of eighty-eight students.

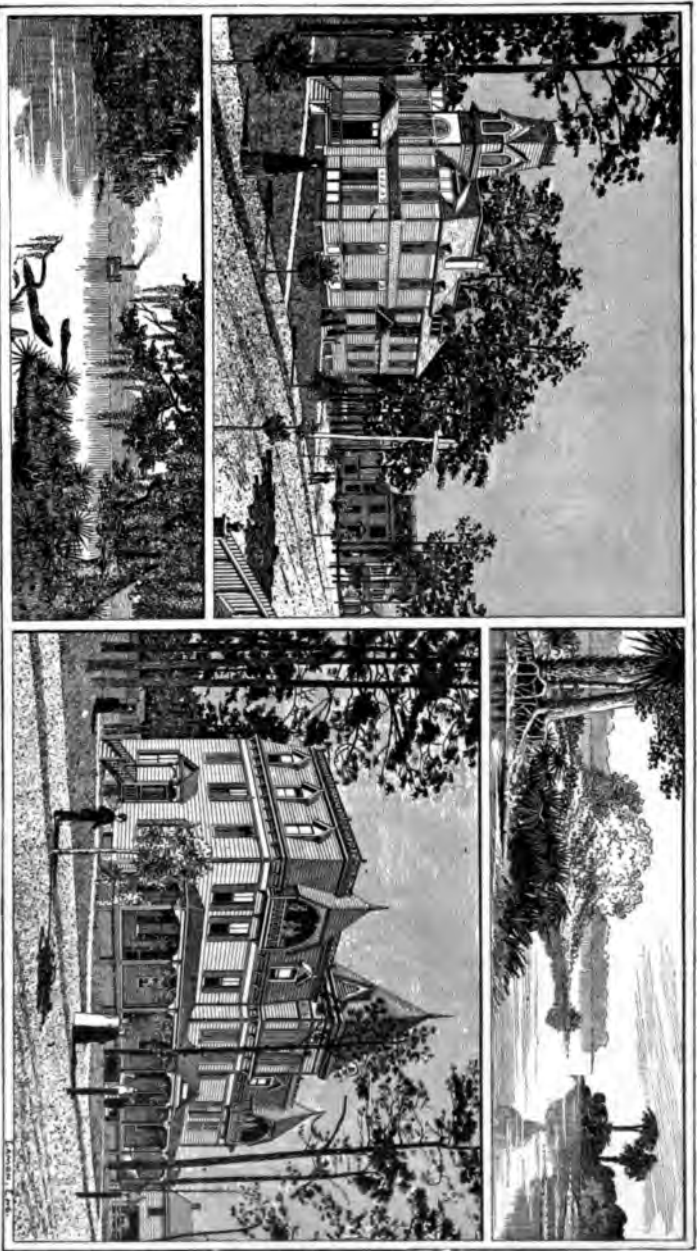
About this time the Baptists of Florida, through their State convention, had decided to establish an institution for higher education, and had appointed a committee to locate the institution.

In order to secure the location of the college at De Land, Mr. De Land offered to donate all the academy property and the sum of \$10,000 for an endowment, if the Baptists of Florida would add to the latter an equal amount.

This generous offer was gladly accepted by the Baptist State Convention of 1885, which body proceeded at once to elect a board of trustees, and to this board the matter of organization was intrusted.

In the summer of 1885 Dr. Griffith resigned his position as principal of the academy, and Prof. J. F. Forbes, A. M., of Brockport, N. Y., was chosen to succeed him. Professor Forbes was graduated from the University of Rochester in 1878, where he had ranked high in scholarly attainments. Before the completion of his university course he had visited the centres of learning in Europe, and made a special study of the German educational system. Soon after graduation he was elected to fill the chair of Latin and Greek in the State Normal School at Brockport, N. Y., and while here he was led to a study of educational methods, and

¹ The sketch of De Land University is mostly taken from a paper prepared by its president, J. F. Forbes, Ph. D. The name of this institution was in February, 1889, changed to John B. Stetson University.



DE LAND UNIVERSITY, DE LAND, FLA.

especially to investigate the more difficult problem of higher education in this country. After seven years of very successful work he resigned this position to take charge of De Land Academy. At the beginning of his administration he organized five regular courses of study and classified the students of the academy accordingly, viz: A classical, and a Latin scientific course, each to extend through four years; a higher English and a normal course, each of three years; and a commercial course of two years.

In the summer of 1886 the name of the institution was changed to De Land Academy and College. By this time it had become evident that a dormitory was an absolute necessity in order to accommodate the increased number of students who were already coming from other counties of the State and from other States. Accordingly, with the help of the citizens and other generous friends of the institution, about \$13,000 was raised. With this sum a fine three-story building was erected and furnished, and named Stetson Hall, in honor of the largest contributor, Mr. John B. Stetson. This building is supplied with water on each floor and is heated throughout by steam, and furnishes a home for the president, professors, and about fifty students.

In the year 1886-87 art and music departments were organized and full courses established in each. Through the generosity of Mr. C. T. Sampson, of North Adams, Mass., a library was established and a sum donated sufficient to purchase a thousand volumes of such books as were immediately available for the use of the students, and to the foundation thus laid additions have been made from time to time by the same generous donor. This has recently been named the "Sampson Library." Also through the efforts of Senator Call, of Florida, the institution was made a depository for the Government publications, and from this source about six hundred volumes have been received. In the spring of 1887 a charter which had been prepared by the board of trustees was submitted to the Legislature of the State. This body approved the charter, passed the act of incorporation, and the institution received the name of De Land University. On the date of incorporation (May 4) Mr. De Land deeded all the property, which up to this time had been in his own name, in trust for the University. As there was then no legal organization of a board of trustees the transfer of the property was made to a provisional board. On January 18, 1888, the board of trustees was legally organized, as provided by the charter. In accordance with this it is "a self-perpetuating body, yet the institution sustains a vital relation to the Baptist State Convention of Florida, the trustees being originally nominated by that body and making an annual report to it." The endowments previously pledged by the Baptists of the State and by Mr. De Land were now secured to the University.

At the opening of the session in October, 1887, a Freshman class was organized, and the work done during the year was similar in character and equal in grade to that of Northern colleges. Departments were

now more fully organized, and the work specialized to a much greater degree. The faculty numbered nine professors and instructors, and tuition was given in the following branches: Psychology and pedagogy, Latin, Greek, modern languages, history, natural science, mathematics, English literature, rhetoric, and English grammar; also in commercial studies, in art, and in music. There were a hundred and three students registered in the year 1887-88. These came from no less than ten States of the Union, and the Dominion of Canada, and from twelve counties in Florida. At the commencement held in May, 1888, there was an art reception in Academy Hall, "when most excellent specimens of work by the students in oil and water colors and modelling in clay were on exhibition. The exhibition was very creditable, and attracted universal attention and commendation." At the meeting of the trustees a committee was appointed to raise an endowment of \$100,000, and nearly half of this amount was at once subscribed. There were seven who completed courses of study: two in the Latin scientific, three in the commercial, and two in the normal course. Previous to this there had been one graduate in 1886 and two in 1887, from the Latin scientific department. Normal graduates receive, without further examination, first-grade certificates from the State superintendent of public instruction.

During the year 1887-88 the institution required some \$3,500 more than its income, and the lack was mainly supplied by John B. Stetson, Esq., of Philadelphia, who had before given so generously to the college, and after whom, as already stated, the institution has now been named.

The year 1888-89 has witnessed many improvements, among which may be mentioned the introduction of a central steam heating plant, at a cost of \$3,500, in order to the better heating of both the academy building—now named De Land Hall—and Stetson Hall; an addition of books to the library to the value of \$1,000; the purchase of some costly and choice pieces of apparatus for the natural science rooms, and of a fine set of illustrative and classical maps.

Large plans are also being made for future improvements, such as lighting by electricity, and adding to the appointments of the school by the erection of a commodious brick building, in which will be located the library, laboratory, chapel, president's and faculty's rooms, and recitation rooms.

This university seems destined to be of incalculable benefit to the State and a lasting credit to its founder, and to others who have aided in insuring its success. It is the purpose of the trustees to make it "second to none in the high standard which it demands in wealth of facilities and in breadth and thoroughness of work. Established in a beautiful and thriving city, the capital of Volusia County, with a culture equal to the best that New England can afford, and the most perfect conditions possible for health, in a matchless climate, the University is destined to furnish a liberal education to the sons and daughters of *Florida*, and to a large number of the young men and women of other *States and of distant lands.*"

THE FLORIDA CONFERENCE COLLEGE.

This college, which was founded in 1886, is under the patronage of the Methodist Episcopal Church (South). The object aimed at in its establishment is stated to be "not only to preserve the Christian civilization handed down to us by our fathers, but to build upon this inheritance a grander civilization. * * * Higher education is the special work of the church. Whether we look to Europe, or to America only, the church has best succeeded in such work, * * * while those institutions of learning projected in antagonism to Christianity have wholly failed." This institution is located within the corporate limits of Leesburg, and its property, consisting of two academic buildings and a number of acres of land, has been contributed in great part by the citizens of this city. There are four teachers in the board of instruction and about eighty students in attendance. It has thus far done only sub-collegiate work.

THE ST. JOHN'S CONFERENCE COLLEGE.

This was established by the St. John's River Conference of the Methodist Episcopal Church (North), and incorporated in 1887. Its aims are essentially the same as those of the Florida Conference College, whose interests are under the control of the other principal branch of the Methodist family. It has a board of nine trustees, chosen annually from the members of the Conference whose name it bears. Pleasantly located in Orange City, Volusia County, it will have an important influence, especially in training the children of those who are connected with the denomination it represents.

OTHER SCHOOLS WITH COLLEGE OR ACADEMIC AIMS.

There are a few other schools with college or academic aims. One of these is Orange College, chartered by the Legislature in 1883, and located in Starke, Bradford County. It is under the auspices of the Christian Church, and is reported by the State Superintendent to be "a fine school for the co-education of the sexes, at least in the lower grades." It has five instructors and enrolls annually an average of a hundred and fifty students; very few as yet have entered upon the college course, and no one of these has completed it.

The Roman Catholic Church has several fine schools under its control, the most flourishing being located at St. Augustine and Jacksonville. These are said to be doing excellent educational work and are highly commended.

Other institutions, like the Glen Mary Female College at Ocala, or the McCormick Institute at De Funiak Springs, have a good local repute, and are lending a hand in the intellectual elevation of Florida. The Chautauquas at De Funiak, North Lake Weir, and Mount Dora have many warm friends and are all working zealously for the same

end, viz, the healthy development of the educational interests of the State.

For the unfortunate children of the State nothing had been done by her legislators previous to 1882. In that year an appropriation was made to establish the Blind and Deaf-Mute Institute. This was located in St. Augustine and opened in 1884. It is under most able management, and its literary aim is to furnish such a course of study as shall fit its graduates to enter college.

In following this brief history of Florida's educational work the writer has been able to understand better than before the past struggles and discouragements as well as the present aims and aspirations of the people with reference to education. With this completer knowledge there has come also a higher appreciation of the work done and a stronger confidence in the future excellence of the school system of the State.

In comparing Florida with other and especially with older States, it should be remembered that the former has a large territory with no centres of wealth, with no aggregation of the people in large cities, with immense tracts of unoccupied lands, with a scattered population and comparatively poor facilities for intercommunication ; with a climate delightful beyond that of other States of the Union, and yet, withal, too enervating during a portion of the year for the highest intellectual activity, and, besides, with more than a third of the inhabitants numbered among the colored race, and bearing still, intellectually, the marks of their bondage. These are hindrances of greater or less moment in any effort to build up and perfect a system of education, and, in reviewing the past and estimating the present condition of Florida, they should be entitled to adequate consideration.



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IN

FLORIDA

BY

GEORGE GARY BUSH, PH. D.

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EDUCATION IN GEORGIA.

By CHARLES EASTWORTH JONES. (*In Press.*)

No. 6.

EDUCATION IN FLORIDA.

By GEORGE GARY BROWN. (*Published 1889.*)

During 1889 will be published (1) a History of education in Wisconsin, by David Swenson and Prof. Wm. F. Allen (now in press); (2) History of education in Indiana, by Prof. J. A. Woodbury (in press); (3) a History of Federal and State aid to education, by Frank W. Blackmar (in press); (4) History of education in Ohio, Michigan, and Illinois, by Prof. Geo. W. Wright (nearly completed).

The Bureau has also in course of preparation monographs on the educational history of Maine, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Vermont, Connecticut, Rhode Island, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, District of Columbia, Kentucky, Tennessee, Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana, Texas, Arkansas, Kansas, Missouri, Iowa, Minnesota, Nebraska, Nevada, Utah, and Oregon.